The Outlook

Vol. 72 November 22, 1902 No. 12

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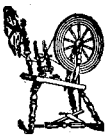

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The Outlook

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The Omnibus Statehood Bill

We are glad to be informed that the final vote on the Omnibus Statehood Bill is not to be taken on the third day of December. The Committee on Territories is to report on that day, and the discussion of their report is set down for the 10th of December. Looking to this discussion, a sub-committee has been appointed to visit the Territories, carefully investigate the situation on the ground, and report to the Senate. This committee contains representatives from both the political parties. We believe that this is the first time that any committee of either the Senate or the House has given so serious study to Territorial conditions before voting on bills for the admission of Territories, and we welcome the fact as an indication of the purpose of the Committee, of which Senator Beveridge is Chairman, not to allow the Statehood Bill to be rushed through without careful consideration, although it is probably true that, if the report of the Committee should be unfavorable to the admission of New Mexico and Arizona, its report would be strenuously contested in the Senate. While we await with interest the report of the subcommittee, the facts at present before the country do not justify the admission of either New Mexico or Arizona. An immense majority of the population of New Mexico are Spanish-speaking Mexicans; the laws are still published in both Spanish and English; nearly all cases must be tried by the aid of an interpreter; in very many cases jurors cannot understand one another in the court-room, or reach a verdict without the aid of an interpreter; and it is only within the last few years that English has been adopted in the schools of the Territory. This is not the kind of population which should be invited in to help elect our Presidents and our Congress, and determine our National problems for us.

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The Alabama Machine Rebuked

Last week President Roosevelt made two appointments which will have far-reaching consequences—the one we are sure for good, the other we fear for evil. The first was the appointment of Joseph O. Thompson as Collector of Internal Revenue for the District of Alabama, to take the place of Julian H. Bingham, removed for activity in organizing the white Republican party, whose recent State Convention excluded negro delegates for no other apparent reason than their color. The President's attitude in this matter, as defined by Postmaster-General Payne, is that "neither the Administration nor the Republican party in the North will stand for the exclusion of any section of our people because of their race or color." This is precisely the attitude which the President has taken toward the appointment of negroes to office, namely, that they should be neither appointed nor rejected because of their color. This is the fundamental American principle of equal rights, and the President's insistence that this principle shall be upheld, even if it requires him to remove from office the leaders of the Republican organization in Alabama, will be received with applause by all believers in equal rights. The effect of the action reaches far beyond the boundaries of Alabama. In North Carolina, in Mississippi, and in Louisiana, also, the attempt to reorganize the Republican party on the basis of ignoring the claims of negro Republicans has recently made startling headway, and the activity of Senator Pritchard, of North Carolina, in this movement led to the false assumption on the part of men who did not know President Roosevelt that the

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President sympathized with this movement. The action in the case of Collector Bingham removes all such illusions, and tells the Southern Republican organizations in the plainest terms that the proscription of negroes because of their color will not be tolerated by the President.

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The Delaware Machine Upheld

The other important appointment of last week, however—the reappointment of William Michael Byrne as United States Attorney for the District of Delaware—administers no such rebuke to the State machine which has offended the party all over the country by the character of its activity in recent campaigns. Mr. Byrne was appointed District Attorney by President McKinley in 1899. Two months ago he tendered his resignation in order to become the candidate for Congress of the Addicks Republicans—a candidacy which prevented the re-election of Congressman Ball and gave the Congressional District to the Democrats. In accepting this nomination Mr. Byrne simply served as the puppet of the Addicks faction to secure factional as against party ends. He demonstrated, however, what has long been apparent to close observers of Delaware politics, that the Addicks faction is the majority faction in the Republican party in the State—being able to poll 13,000 votes as against 8,000 for the Regulars. When Mr. Byrne's resignation took effect, Judge Bradford, of the District Court, appointed Mr. T. P. Nields to fill his place until a permanent appointment should be made, and a petition to have Mr. Nields made the permanent appointee was signed by all the Judges of the State and Federal Courts, and by nearly every member of the bar of Delaware. Before, however, this petition could be forwarded to the President, Mr. Byrne was reappointed to his old position, to the surprise of almost the entire State. It is claimed that in this matter President Roosevelt has followed his general rule in making Federal appointments in the various States. This rule is to act upon the recommendation of the recognized leaders of the Republican party within the several States when efficient public officers are thereby secured; and it is held that the recent election in Delaware has demonstrated the right of the Addicks faction to be regarded as the regular representative of the Republican party in that State. We have commented on this appointment in another column.

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The Mine Operators' Statement

Last week the officers of the anthracite roads presented their formal replies to the statement of Mr. Mitchell on behalf of the miners. The answer of President Baer, of the Reading, was the first in point of time, and covers virtually all the points urged. In brief, it is as follows:

1. The demand for a twenty per cent. increase in wages for workmen employed on piece-work is arbitrary, unreasonable, and unjust. It is not true that miners of soft coal are paid more than the miners of hard coal for similar work. The work is dissimilar, and most of the hard-coal miners who found work in the soft-coal fields during the past summer prefer to return to the hard-coal fields now that work has been resumed there. The anthracite miners would receive higher wages if willing to work regularly, and with present wages are able to maintain a fair standard of living without sending their little children into the breakers and factories when they should be at school. The alleged increase in the cost of living is declared not to have altered this situation.

2. The demand for a reduction of twenty per cent. in the hours of men employed by the day is neither reasonable nor practicable. "In some exceptionally exhausting work a day of ten hours is too long, but there is no exhausting labor which justifies a reduction of hours of work in anthracite coal operations."

3. Any increase in wages will necessarily increase the price of coal to the public, restrict its use, and seriously affect the ability of industries using it to compete with the industries using bituminous coal.

4. The demand that coal shall henceforth be mined by the legal ton is unreasonable, as allowance should be made for slate and impurities, and most companies, including the Reading, prefer to pay for coal by measurement instead of weight.

5. No contract can be made with the United Mine Workers, as it is primarily a bituminous mine workers' association interested in a rival industry, and, furthermore, is an organization which authorizes strikes to force the discharge of non-union men if they refuse to join it, and which employed all manner of force, violence, and intimidation to keep non-union men from taking the places of striking pumpmen and engineers when their places had to be filled to save the mines from destruction. The Commission is reminded that in the offers of the coal companies to submit certain questions to arbitration the companies expressly stipulated that they would not, under any circumstances,

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recognize the United Mine Workers' union. The question of such recognition, therefore, ought not to be considered by the Commission. The companies, however, might at some time be willing to enter into agreements with an organization limited to anthracite mine workers, obeying the laws of the land, and respecting the right of every man to work, whether he belongs to the union or not.

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Mr. Mitchell Before the Commission

The rejoinder of the miners to most of these contentions was presented in the statement made by President Mitchell at the first of the public hearings which were begun before the Strike Commission the latter part of last week. The wages of the soft-coal miners, he said, had been advanced fifty per cent. since 1898, and were now from twenty to forty per cent. higher than the wages of hard-coal miners in the various classes of work, though the working day is shorter. The soft-coal miners have been granted the eight-hour day, which has come to be the standard working day for miners in all the mines of the West—gold, silver, copper, and coal—and has for many years been the standard working day in the coal-mines of England. The recent reduction in the hours of labor for soft-coal miners, he said, had not been accompanied by any corresponding reduction in the amount of work done by each workman. On the contrary, "the reports of the United States Geological Survey demonstrate that more coal has been produced annually since the inauguration of the eight-hour day than in any preceding year. Each miner produced more coal per working day in eight hours than he formerly produced in ten hours." The labor of miners is unusually arduous and hazardous. In the anthracite mines 2.6 persons are killed daily, three times that number are maimed, and few miners escape miners' asthma. "The miners are compelled to work in powder smoke, in foul air, many of them in water, and their work is difficult and exhausting. Reputable insurance companies will not issue policies to this class of workmen." The varying standards by which coal is weighed and measured is the source of injustice to individuals and continual and almost universal controversies and bad feeling. The legal ton furnishes the fair standard for all interests. As to discipline, the refusal of the anthracite companies to recognize the national miners' union had made it necessary that the men at every mine should be left free to stop work when they thought themselves aggrieved. If a contract were made with the miners' union, the men would have to remain at work pending the appeal of their grievances from local to general officers, representing both parties to the controversy, and finally to arbitration. His plan in this respect as laid before the Commission will strike the general reader as admirable; what practical objections to it the expert might discover we do not know. Mr. Mitchell's cross-examination is proceeding as we go to press.

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The Pennsylvania Railroad Advances Wages

It is interesting and encouraging, in contrast with the labor conflicts reports of which have recently so largely absorbed public attention, to record that on Thursday of last week the Pennsylvania Railroad Company posted the following notice: "Taking effect November 1, 1902, an advance of ten per cent. will be made in the wages of all employees permanently in the service of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company east of Pittsburg, who are now earning less than $200 per month." The day following a similar notice was posted covering the lines west of Pittsburg, and—more surprising still—the Reading road, which has lost so heavily during the strike, announced that it had granted the same increase to all the men in its employ. Other Eastern roads are expected to follow the lead thus given, and Western railroad presidents are quoted to the effect that their lines have already made similar advances through arrangements with the several divisions of their employees. The movement, therefore, toward a wage advance for railway employees is practically of National scope. Even were it confined to the Pennsylvania lines, however, it would still be of National importance, as these lines employ one hundred and forty thousand men—or about one-eighth of all the railroad hands in the country. As the average payment of railway employees, according to the last report of the Inter-State Commerce Commission, was about $550 a year, the ten per cent. advance means an addition of something like

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seven million dollars a year to the payrolls of the companies under the Pennsylvania control. The reason assigned by President Cassatt for recommending the advance, according to a report published by the Associated Press, is the presence of extraordinary prosperity, its prospective continuance for at least two years if existing contracts are carried out, and the right of the employees to share in the prosperity of the roads. Especial mention, it is reported, was made by him of the recent rise in the cost of living and the need of a wage advance to compensate therefor. Until this year, as was recently observed in these columns, the railroad industry had been one of those in which average wages had remained singularly stationary since the era of better prices set in. Employment had become more steady and promotions had been frequent, but the employee who had steady work during the hard times, and who had had no promotion since, was getting little more pay, while his living expenses had increased. That the recent advance in wages should have been made without friction, and with such apparent feeling of good will, makes the event peculiarly a subject for public congratulation.

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The Bankers' Association Advises Caution

At last week's meeting of the American Bankers' Association in New Orleans the dominant opinion was that the time had come for greater caution in the making of loans—an opinion, by the way, so general and so pronounced as to be a primary cause for last week's reactions in the stock market. Ex-Assistant of the Treasury Vanderlip recently pointed out that since 1898 one billion three hundred million dollars had been added to the liabilities of National banks, with no addition whatever to their reserves. Comptroller of the Currency Ridgely put the same truth before the Association by stating that in 1896 the National banks had in their vaults legal-tender money to the amount of 32 per cent. of their liabilities, but that at the present time they have in their vaults only 24 per cent. "The situation," he said, "is serious, and requires close attention and careful handling." The enormous issues of trust securities, he continued, constituted a further element of danger. The great bulk of these securities, he declared, are still in the hands of the banking firms and syndicates which undertook to market them. In all directions the credits of banks have been advanced as far as, if not farther than, safety permits. On the question of a further change in the banking system in the direction of establishing branch banks and allowing banks to issue money secured only by their assets, the opinion of the Association was divided, but a majority appeared to oppose both proposals. Ex-Comptroller Dawes declared that, whether branch banking was good or not, public sentiment to-day did not approve of it and that it would be unwise to urge a measure which would mean the consolidation of banking interests at the same time that manufacturing interests were being consolidated on such an alarming scale. "The most of the argument for branch banking," he went on, "assumes that a community can be as well served by an agent acting at a distance under delegated authority, as by an independent local institution possessing full authority and power to pass upon local questions. . . . To allow any great latitude or discretion in the making of local loans by the agents of branch banks would result in a diversity of policy inconsistent with the highest success of such institutions." Upon one point, however, there was substantial unanimity of opinion, and that was that an element of elasticity should be imparted to our currency system by permitting the banks, in times of emergency, to issue additional notes, subject to a five per cent. tax to the Government. This system, as our readers know, has worked well for years in the national bank system of Germany. The five per cent. tax upon the emergency notes forces the banks to retire them when the emergency has passed. This is the right form of "elastic" currency, for by it the amount of the currency increases in times of panic, when credit is hard to get, and decreases when credits become easy.

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English Affairs

High authority in England has specifically declared that the visit of the German Emperor at Sandringham had no political significance; but the royal families of the two countries

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are so intimately connected that when the sovereigns come together there is undoubtedly a free and friendly interchange of opinion, which in most cases makes for peace. The fact that the Premier, Mr. Chamberlain, and other prominent members of the Cabinet were present by invitation of the King during the Emperor's visit at Sandringham, and that the Emperor subsequently went to stay with Lord Lansdowne, gives good ground for the belief that the Emperor's visit has not been wholly a family affair. There has been a great deal of irritation against England in Germany of late; and some English papers—notably "The Spectator"—have been printing interpretations of the German attitude and purpose towards England of a distinctly alarmist character. There is probably very little foundation for the belief that Germany is preparing to isolate England, or to build up German power to a point where it will overbalance English power and reduce England to a second place. But international irritation is often unfortunate in its consequences; and the visit of the Emperor is likely to remove some of the causes of the present state of feeling.—— The House of Commons is giving almost exclusive attention to the Education Bill, and the divisions on amendments are so many and come in such rapid succession that the members of the House are continually tramping into the division lobbies and back again. Under Mr. Chamberlain's advice, Mr. Balfour has accepted amendments which somewhat curtail the power of the clergy of the English Church in control of the schools; and the very advanced Churchmen, under the lead of Lord Hugh Cecil, have been expressing their opposition in a public meeting, Lord Cecil even going so far as to urge Churchmen to withdraw from the Union party if the Ministry materially reduces clerical control of the schools in the future. The bill will undoubtedly be passed, but with modifications which will reduce clerical power without essentially modifying the principle of clerical control.

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New York Public Library

Two important events in the history of the city of New York took place last week—the laying of the corner-stone of the new Public Library on the Astor, Lenox, and Tilden foundations, and the opening of the new Chamber of Commerce building. New York has waited many years for a public library which, by reason of the completeness of its collection of books, their accessibility, and the thoroughness of its methods of distribution, should put it on a level with the great cities of the world and supply the needs both of students and of the reading public. After a long series of negotiations, the three great foundations provided for by the generosity of the Astors, of Mr. Lenox, and of Mr. Tilden were consolidated by sacrifices on the part of the families represented. Many perplexities were finally removed and many problems solved by a broad-minded spirit on the part of the different boards of trustees and of the different families interested. When these preliminary steps had been taken, it was still necessary to secure legislative authority, and, after that authority had been secured, to obtain the co-operation of the city authorities. From the beginning this great enterprise has been, fortunately, in strong hands; and the laying of the corner-stone marks the formal step in the final stage of a long process of evolution. The corner-stone was laid by Mayor Low, who gave the history of the various steps which had led to the union of different organizations in a great public library, and the measures taken to execute the plans. He recalled Mr. Andrew Carnegie's contribution of five million dollars for branch libraries, and the city's contribution of sites likely to represent one million in addition; and he predicted that in the near future the city of New York will enjoy the most adequate and effective system of free circulating libraries to be found in any city in the world, with a reference library of the very highest rank as well. Such a library, the Mayor declared, would be a great aid to the literary and scientific life of the city. It will make New York more and more the home of men who administer to its highest life, and it will identify the city with future discoverers.

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The New Chamber of Commerce

The dedication of the new home of the Chamber of Commerce in New York City was notable, not only by reason of the influence and dignity of the body

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which it is to house, but by the presence of a group of distinguished men representative of the commerce of the world. France, Germany, and England were represented, not only by their Ambassadors, but by delegates from the various Chambers of Commerce in those countries. The exercises were held in the main hall, a room of large proportions and great dignity, Dr. Dix offering the introductory prayer, Mr. Morris K. Jesup, the President of the Chamber, making the introductory address, and ex-President Cleveland the principal address of the occasion, in which he gave a brief history of the origin of the society, its commercial and moral achievements, and an interpretation of the mission of commerce, which he defined in these words:

It may, therefore, be justly said that commerce, by what it has already done, by what lies yet in its path undone, and by what it is able to do, has created for itself a mission which cannot be fulfilled by increased effort directed solely to gaining mere business advantages. This mission does not exact an abatement of commercial struggle and competition, but it so far fixes their limit as to enjoin that with such struggle and competition there shall also be willing co-operation in an endeavor to promote every beneficial purpose which commerce can draw within its sphere.

President Roosevelt, who made a very brief address of greeting to the guests of the Chamber on behalf of the Nation, was received with tumultuous applause; and Mayor Low brought the exercises to a close in a few remarks in the key of his introductory sentence, "The history of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York is a part of the story of our State and Nation." Luncheon was served for the guests in the building, and in the evening a formal dinner was given at the Waldorf-Astoria, attended by about six hundred men, including President Roosevelt, the Ambassadors and representatives of foreign Chambers of Commerce, and a throng of leading bankers, financiers, and men of business from all parts of the country.

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The President's Speech

President Roosevelt's speech had the ringing ethical note which has come to be recognized as characteristic of the President, and which, more than anything else, has gained for him the confidence of the country in an almost unique degree. After commenting on the commanding position of New York in the commercial life of the country, the President interpreted the National policy towards other nations in words which cannot well be abbreviated or condensed:

I think I can say safely that we have shown by our attitude toward Cuba, by our attitude toward China, that as regards weaker powers our desire is that they may be able to stand alone, and that if they will only show themselves willing to deal honestly and fairly with the rest of mankind, we, on our side, will do all we can to help, not to hinder, them. With the great Powers of the world we desire no rivalry that is not honorable to both parties. We wish them well. We believe that the trend of the modern spirit is ever stronger toward peace, not war; toward friendship, not hostility, as the normal international attitude. We are glad indeed that we are on good terms with all the other peoples of mankind, and no effort on our part shall be spared to secure a continuance of these relations. And remember, gentlemen, that we shall be a potent factor for peace largely in proportion to the way in which we make it evident that our attitude is due, not to weakness, not to inability to defend ourselves, but to a genuine repugnance to wrongdoing, a genuine desire for self-respecting friendship with our neighbors. The voice of the weakling or the craven counts for nothing when he clamors for peace; but the voice of the just man armed is potent.

The President declared that it is even more important to have peace at home than peace abroad, and that industrial peace can be secured in society only when "in their various relations employer and employed alike show, not merely insistence each upon his own rights, but also regard for the rights of others, and a full acknowledgment of the interests of the third party—the public." It will not be an easy matter to work out a righteous rule of conduct; no patent remedy can be devised for the solution of problems of the industrial world, but those problems can all be solved if we bring to the solution certain old-time virtues and keep out of it some of the most undesirable human traits:

Arrogance, suspicion, brutal envy of the well-to-do, brutal indifference toward those who are not well-to-do, the hard refusal to consider the rights of others, the foolish refusal to consider the limits of beneficent action, the base appeal to the spirit of selfish greed, whether it take the form of plunder of the fortunate or of oppression of the unfortunate—from these and all kindred vices this Nation must be kept free if it is to remain in

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its present position in the foreground of the peoples of mankind.

The President has probably never uttered a phrase which, in a homely and direct way, explains more clearly his own force than the words, "The first requisite of a good citizen in this Republic of ours is that he shall be able and willing to pull his weight;" nor ever put more clearly the contrast between the success which honors and the success which disgraces—his own political success, on the one hand, and that of an Addicks or a Croker on the other—than in the following:

> There is the success that brings with it the seared soul—the success which is achieved by wolfish greed and vulpine cunning—the success which makes honest men uneasy or indignant in its presence. Then there is the other kind of success—the success which comes as the reward of keen insight, of sagacity, of resolution, of address, combined with unflinching rectitude of behavior, public and private.

The ethical ring in the speech was emphasized by the resonance of the voice in which it was delivered, and evoked the most hearty applause from the crowd of great financiers present.

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Lessons of the Molineux Case

It took the State of New York nearly four years to establish the fact that Roland Molineux was not, according to a jury's belief, guilty of murder. It cost the State about $200,000 to reach this negative result; it cost the father of the accused $200,000 to defend him. The person now declared innocent spent almost four years of his life in prison, the shadow of a shameful death lay upon him, and the mental and moral sufferings of himself and his family were cruel in the extreme. Moreover, the criminal who committed the murder (for murder there surely was) remains unpunished; the reliance upon law as a protection against the danger of secret poisoning receives a severe shock; and apparently State and law are at the end of their resources. We are not concerned here with the question whether Molineux is really innocent or guilty; it is certain that no adequate evidence was adduced, that the jury in this second trial needed only a few minutes to reach a verdict, and that every principle of justice and humanity requires good citizens to accept the verdict as conclusive. What may be learned from this "celebrated case" for future use in legislation and criminal procedure? First, that the law's delay and uncertainty in such cases have become intolerable; this evil may be remedied or held in check by a Judge of mental force and power of quick, positive decision; under Judge Lambert's admirable rulings, for instance, the second Molineux trial took twenty-seven days, as against two months and six days used up in the first trial. Secondly, the laws of evidence should in some way be clarified; it should be impossible for a man to be put in imminent peril of his life, as in this case, because a Judge of the Supreme Court cannot tell whether certain evidence is or is not legally admissible. Third, expert testimony should be governed and restrained by the State; it has become a public scandal that highly paid experts in handwriting or chemistry or medicine are invariably to be found in any required number to testify in direct contradiction to one another on scientific points; it has become proverbial that juries usually ignore expert evidence, which ought to be in fact the surest and most valuable of all classes of testimony; it may be necessary for the courts (not the prosecuting attorneys) to engage, pay, and superintend the work of specialists when such evidence is necessary. Fourth, there seems to be a tendency for the State's prosecuting attorneys to show undue zeal, even to the point of treating witnesses and evidence unfairly, and of showing such bitterness and fierceness as to turn prosecution into persecution; it should never be forgotten that the District Attorney is the State's agent and that the State is striving, not for conviction, but for justice.

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The University of California

The recent progress of the University of California, as reported in the University publication, is notable both in quality and in extent. The building equipment of the University is entirely inadequate for the accommodation of the students enrolled in the various colleges—2,483 in number—an increase of twenty-five per cent. in two years. In the face of the fact that limited students have been almost eliminated, the number of special students restricted, admission made more difficult,

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and a fee for the first time required from all students from other States than California—measures which promised to reduce the attendance upon the University—lecture-rooms and laboratory accommodations are inadequate, and various temporary expedients have been resorted to in order to carry on the work in the different departments. It has been necessary to place tables in the open-air court of the Chemistry Building in order to provide for a considerable number of laboratory students; and lectures have been given on the porches and stone steps of the Chemistry Building, because the lecture-room could not accommodate the throng which desired admission. The President's house, soon to be completed, will be finished off into seminar rooms as a measure of temporary relief, and considerable temporary building must be done by the University in order to provide for the immediate future. The corner-stone of the new Mining Building, which is to be erected by Mrs. Hearst as a memorial to Senator Hearst, will be laid this month; and the general plan drawn by the supervising architect of the University involves an extremely simple and dignified exterior treatment, based upon classical tradition, but influenced by the work of the Spanish Fathers in Southern California. This structure, which is to be very large and to be built with reference to future additions, will provide the administrative department with public and private offices, a reception-room for visitors, a room for records, lecture-rooms, a memorial vestibule and museum, a general mining laboratory, with metallurgical laboratories, smelting-rooms, draughting-rooms, rooms for photographic work, forge-rooms, carpenter-shop, and ample accommodations of various kinds. It is expected that the building will form, not only one of the most dignified of the group which is to be built in the near future, but will express the character of a College of Mining Engineering as distinguished from a College of Art, Letters, or Science. The University is to have an arched stone bridge at the entrance to its grounds, with a monumental gateway of bronze and stone, and an out-of-door auditorium for great public occasions, which promises to be very beautiful in its arrangement, and to seat, on the rising slopes of a natural amphitheater, about four thousand people. The University specially needs an alumni hall, a library building, and an adequate library. New work has been undertaken in University Extension, and is meeting with great success throughout the State, under the special charge of Professor H. Morse Stephens, who has lately gone to the University from Cornell.

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A Valuable School Auxiliary

Great benefactions counted by many thousands of dollars are not the only incentives to the higher education in this country. Scarcely less valuable, both as signs of public interest and as inspiration to educational service, are such memorials as the two we have recently reported in our columns: that to Miss Porter, at Farmington, Conn., established by her students in her memory, and the scholarship at Vassar College secured by their pupils in memory of Mr. and Mrs. Gorham D. Abbot, who were the founders of Spingler Institute, and who indirectly as pioneers contributed largely by their counsel in the organization of Vassar College. Out of the organization formed to establish the Abbot Memorial Scholarship at Vassar has grown a permanent body called the Abbot Collegiate Association. Its first annual meeting was held in New York a few days ago. Those who are eligible to membership in the Association are former pupils of the Abbot school, their children and grandchildren, or any who recognize Dr. Gorham Abbot's part in the founding of Vassar. It is a promising sign of the times that American women are, in such ways as this, taking an active part in educational affairs; and the multiplication of such associations throughout the country, which shall co-operate in all recognized and well-established educational reforms and improvements, may do a great deal towards raising the standards and increasing the efficiency of general education. Similar associations composed of members who have had the advantage of special educational training might well contribute by their attention to our public schools, and by their fellowship and support aid in elevating them to and maintaining them upon the highest plane. This can be

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accomplished only when private citizens take some active interest in the public school, as by making the acquaintance of the teachers, enabling them to feel that their often exacting and exhausting work is appreciated, and sometimes aiding them by adding incidentally to their equipment outside the materials provided for by public taxation.

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Church Federation

The movement for Church Federation is making progress. Since the Disciples of Christ pledged support to it in their National Convention at Omaha in October, a convention at Lincoln, Nebraska, in which leading men of various denominations took part, has organized a Federation in that State. Similar movements are more or less advanced in Wisconsin, Michigan, Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, and Minnesota. These are auspicious signs that home missionary work in those States will show increasing comity and economy. The rapid development of interest in Federation through the activity of Dr. E. B. Sanford as Field Secretary has made it necessary to secure for the New York State Federation, to which Dr. Sanford has given part of his time, the service of a secretary who can devote to it his whole time, setting Dr. Sanford free for work throughout the country. This was agreed to at the annual meeting of the State Federation at Albany, November 11 and 12. A body of strong and representative ministers and laymen was present. The chief topics discussed were "The Possibilities and Limitations of the Interdenominational District and Local Councils," and "City Evangelization," as a work for which federation is requisite. Many strong and helpful addresses were made. The President of the State Federation is Dean Brooks, of Syracuse University.

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Relief for the Armenians

Professor Rendel Harris is well known as a distinguished Orientalist. In 1896, with Mrs. Harris, he made a tour through European and Asiatic Turkey, noticing conditions in Armenia with special attention. It was the year directly following the fearful massacres there. The book entitled "Letters from Turkey" was the result, a work to be placed alongside Mr. Bryce's "Transcaucasia and Ararat" as an authoritative source of knowledge concerning conditions in an unhappy land. But Professor Harris was not satisfied with merely writing a book. Appalled by the extent of the massacres, he immediately instituted measures for the relief of destitute Armenian orphans. He held meetings which informed the public concerning the needs of the Armenian people. He appealed for contributions; and when they were given, he and his wife acted as almoners. Professor and Mrs. Harris have now issued the sixth annual report chronicling the helpful work which they have undertaken. This latest report shows an expenditure of between eight and nine thousand dollars during the past year; in the accounts no expenses of printing, postage, or travel have been charged. Those who have contributed to the relief fund have the satisfaction of knowing that their gifts have passed undiminished to the Armenians for whom they were intended, especially in communities like Van, Sasun, Harput, and Diarkebir, where the work of the unspeakable Turk was so tragically evident.

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Muscular Christianity in China

In a recent letter to The Outlook Mr. Robert E. Lewis, General Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association of Shanghai, describes the impression made upon the natives and foreigners there by the progress of the Association in its athletic department, especially in bicycling, tennis, and cricketing. He says: "Shanghai did not seem to take us seriously when it heard that we were going in for athletics. We seemed to impress the town as being too pious to win. The English cricket club of Shanghai had defeated the best cricketers of Hongkong, Singapore, and Japan. When they booked a match with us, there were no qualms in their minds; but the result of the match was that we won by eighty runs and seven wickets. During the match the spectators freely commented on the fact that the 'Christians are too much for the Club.' Gradually we are working out in China the all-round idea of the Association, and this victory did us as much good as it would do the New York Association to go up to New Haven and beat Yale in

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baseball." The "all-round idea" is the one to conjure with nowadays, in journalism or literature, politics or religion, but especially in religion, which covers all life, physical, mental, spiritual, not a part of life.

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In the Army

Governmental annual reports do not usually contain much material calculated to create consternation, but there is one suggestion in the report of the Adjutant-General of the Army which is likely to prove an exception to the complacent rule. There is a succinct paragraph devoted to a discouragement of matrimony on the part of young officers of the army. It is very clearly stated that it is quite beyond the favor of the military authorities that the subaltern in the commissioned personnel shall involve himself in the expensive luxury of marriage. It has been known that the War Department will not appoint to a commission a candidate from civil life or the ranks who is connubially encumbered, but, of course, there is no statute or service regulation which compels celibacy after a young man is appointed. It is hardly likely that the Adjutant-General's comment will have other value or effect than that of an unheeded admonition, although he takes pains to sustain his discouragement of marriage by references to financial distress and disaster which may impress the prudent. It is by no means an idle note of warning which the military authority has sounded. The young army officer is bound to have a hard time with the resources at his disposal. He has uniforms to buy, and if he is of the cavalry he has a horse to provide. This leaves him scant means to support a family, unless he is fortunate enough to possess an income independent of the Government stipend. Young army officers must expect to be ordered here and there, and the Department chooses to feel itself untrammeled in its disposition of them, which it might not do if they were burdened with a household. There are those, of course, who will believe that the Departmental attitude has an unsentimental harshness which fosters bachelorhood and demolishes feminine hearts. Something more popular from the same source is the suggestion that each regiment of the army should have its own song, and that the enlisted men of the army garrisons shall devote their spare evenings to the practice of vocal music. This has already been done to some extent in the marine corps, and the army people think the plan would serve to interest the soldiers and offset the baser attractions which infest the neighborhood of garrisons. A committee of officers is at work at West Point on a compilation of songs relating to the navy, marine corps, and army, with the intention of some day publishing in a volume the various airs with words which, in one way or another, relate to those services.

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The Trust Problem: The "Socialistic Basis"

In 1894 Herbert Spencer wrote to Mr. James A. Skilton, of Brooklyn, a letter on the industrial situation, which was published in the Brooklyn "Eagle" in 1894 and republished a week or two ago. The letter is as follows:

Fairfield, Pewsey, Wilt., May 28, 1894.

Dear Mr. Skilton:

I believe I wished you good-speed in your enterprise, but I believe your enterprise is futile. In the United States, as here and elsewhere, the movement towards dissolution of existing social forms and reorganization on a socialistic basis I believe to be irresistible. We have bad times before us and you have still more dreadful times before you—civil war, immense bloodshed, and eventually military despotism of the severest type.

Truly yours,

HERBERT SPENCER.

The Outlook agrees with Mr. Spencer in thinking the present movement is one towards a dissolution of existing social forces and a reorganization on a socialistic basis, and that it is irresistible; but it does not apprehend from that movement any of the dreadful ills which Mr. Spencer apprehends. On the contrary, we regard it as one essentially beneficial and quite in accordance with that law of evolution which no one has perhaps better defined than Mr. Spencer—that is, it is a movement from a simpler to a more complex and from a lower to a higher state of society.

In the primitive state each individual himself conducts all forms of industry necessary for his comfort. He kills the game, skins it, makes of the skins moccasins for his feet and a cloak for his body, digs

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out the log to serve for a canoe, erects his wigwam, cultivates his little patch of corn, makes and strings his own bow and fashions his own arrows; is, in short, butcher, tanner, shoemaker, tailor, boat-builder, house carpenter, farmer, armorer, all in one. This is individualism, pure and simple.

Gradually he learns that he is more skillful in the chase than his neighbor, and that his neighbor can make a better bow and arrow than he. So one stays at home to construct, the other goes forth to hunt, and the two exchange their products to mutual advantage. As this exchange of products grows more extensive and complicated, a medium for the exchange is invented, and thus money comes into use and barter becomes trade. It is discovered that different communities have different advantages in soil and climate, or the taste and temper of the people; so communities as well as individuals begin to exchange, and trade becomes commerce. Steam is discovered and machinery invented. With steam and machinery comes a necessity for a larger industrial organization. Combination of capital is now required. Capital is what a man makes by his industry more than he consumes in his support or his pleasures. When the individual housewife spins the wool and weaves it in her loom into a homespun garment, a single man in a single lifetime can easily accumulate the capital necessary for such household industry. But when a thousand spindles are revolving and a hundred looms are clanking under a single roof, one man cannot in a lifetime accumulate the capital for such a manufacturing industry. Various individuals must combine their savings. Thus the corporation is created. When a single housewife spins and weaves the wool, no industrial organization is necessary; she spins and weaves as she chooses and as other duties to her household permit. But when five hundred employees are working under a single roof in the manufacture of woolen garments for a widely extended market, the former individual liberty is no longer possible. These five hundred workers must work together. Thus labor organization is created.

Organized labor is as essential to modern civilization as organized capital. The only question is, Shall labor organizations be autocratic or democratic; shall they be organized under capital and wholly subject to its will; or shall they have something to say respecting the form, nature, and spirit of the organization? Shall they work under the conditions which capital prescribes, during the hours which capital requires, for the wages which capital chooses to pay, or shall they have a voice in determining the conditions, the wages, the hours?" This is the first and fundamental question involved in our industrial problem. The mine, the factory, the railroad, are private enterprises, owned by the capitalists, to be controlled, directed, administered by capitalists, who buy their labor as they buy their machinery, and discharge the one as they discard the other when it ceases to be profitable: this is one view. The mine, the railroad, the factory, are a joint-stock enterprise, to be carried on by capitalists and laborers as partners who share the control and the profits, neither being independent of the other, each fulfilling an appropriate function in a harmonious organization, for mutual profit and inspired by a spirit of mutual respect: this is the other view. Which of the two is more in harmony with the principles of democracy? To ask this question is to answer it. Whatever may be said of the Old World, in the New, where the plain people control the government of city, State, and Nation, where they direct and administer the public education, where they are the final authority in their ecclesiastical institutions, it is not possible that they will permanently consent to a system which allows them no voice in their industrial organizations. The country which is democratic in politics, education, and religion will not be autocratic in industry.

The arguments against the organization of labor are plausible but not sound; they are derived from an observation of superficial incidents, not from a study of fundamental principles. "Labor unions are irresponsible organizations." We doubt the truth of the statement; we are inclined to believe that in law a labor union is nothing but a great partnership in which every member is personally responsible for all the pecuniary obligations of the organization. But if it were otherwise the remedy would be incorporation, not dissolution. "They cause strikes." On the contrary,

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they have reduced strikes; it would be more true to say that, historically, unions have grown out of strikes than that strikes have grown out of unions. "They break contracts." Sometimes, but on the whole they have kept their agreements quite as loyally as capitalistic organizations. "They violate the law." Then punish them; no one proposes to dispense with combinations of capital because in some cases they have violated law, in more cases have evaded it, and not infrequently have corrupted it at its spring and source. "They are led by bosses and demagogues." So have political organizations been led by bosses and demagogues; they are more apparent in politics than in industry, and are not wholly absent from the churches. What then? We will get rid of them; we will not take the counsel of the anarchists and dissolve society into its original elements. "They destroy individual action. Good laborer and poor laborer are paid the same wage; and both follow the dictation of their walking delegate." The shrewd business man and the unbusinesslike widow invest their earnings in the same company and both get the same interest on their investment. Both leave their capital at the absolute disposal of trusted directors. For they have learned that in combination under chosen leaders both get an advantage which neither could get acting alone. The skillful and the less skillful laborer, acting on the same principle, unite and put their labor in the control of chosen leaders, because they believe that by combination both can get an advantage which neither can get if he acts separately. And they are right. In industries where labor is disorganized, conditions are bad, hours are long, wages are poor—sweatshops, for instance. With rare if any exceptions, the organization of labor has been followed by improved conditions, lessened hours, better wages.

The right of a laborer not to join a labor organization is absolute. The right of the individual to work antedates and is the necessary foundation of the right of laborers to unite in their work. It is like the right of the capitalist not to invest his money in a corporation, but to continue in an individual enterprise. To force a factory into a trust, to force a laborer into a union, is to violate the fundamental rights of man; for no right is more fundamental than that of an owner to his property and that of a workman to his labor. The labor unions which try to coerce laborers to join them weaken their own cause and delay that organization of labor which they imagine that they are promoting. But, more than that, they violate the rights of labor and give excuse for its violation by others. There have been cases in which capitalists have stood bravely for the right of the individual laborer against the attacks of labor unions which, however unconsciously, were betraying their own cause. All honor to such defenders of freedom. But too often the right of the laborer to employment so valiantly defended by capitalistic organs means only the right of the capitalist to pay lower wages, require longer hours, and impose worse conditions than would be possible if labor were organized. The claim for the operators in the recent coal strike that they are fighting for the rights of the individual laborer deceives no one. Mr. Mitchell, with whom they have so persistently refused to treat, has claimed for non-union miners the same advantages as for the members of the unions; he has worked as loyally for the one as for the other, and has wisely trusted to time, patience, and persuasion to do what a few criminal hotheads have endeavored to do by violence—bring all mine laborers into a common organization working for a common end.

Combination both of property and of industry, of capital and of labor, is inevitable, because it is the divine order of human development. It would be no more possible to go back to the individualistic organization of the first part of the nineteenth century than to go back to the feudalism that preceded it. To do so we should have to forget the invention of machinery, the discovery of steam, the utilization of electricity, division of labor, the art of co-operation. The remedy for the evils incidental to the combination of capital is not prohibition of combination, but a wiser and more beneficent combination; the remedy for the evils incidental to the organization of labor is not its disorganization, but its more efficient organization. The movement from individualism towards organism is irresistible because it is beneficent. With its economic advantages every student of current problems is familiar. Its

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ethical advantages are not less noteworthy. A corporation cannot exist until character has so developed that it is safe for thousands of men and women to intrust their earnings to the uncontrolled management of a few financiers of ability. A corporation, in the modern sense of that term, was an ethical impossibility in pagan Greece or Rome. It means distribution of wealth; it means combination on a basis of mutual trust and confidence and for mutual benefit. A labor union cannot exist unless character has so far developed that workingmen can see that an injury to one is an injury to all, and a benefit to one is a benefit to all. In the recent coal strike men of more than a score of different nationalities, speaking ten or fifteen different languages or dialects, without a common faith or a common tradition, Roman Catholics, Protestants, Jews, and unbelievers, united in a common cause on the simple basis of a common manhood. The discovery by these men that they were brothers is worth all that has it cost. It may be hoped that the further discovery will in time follow on both sides that operator and miner, capitalist and laborer, are also brothers. Behind this movement from the individualistic organization of society to a reorganization on a basis of co-operation in a spirit of mutual respect and for mutual profit are centuries of the progress of mankind; beneath it is the growing consciousness of the spiritual unity of the race; in it is the hope of the peace and prosperity of humanity for the future.

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The President's Appointment in Delaware

We give in another column the facts respecting the appointment of Mr. Byrne, of Delaware, as United States District Attorney by President Roosevelt. No one who knows Mr. Roosevelt will accuse him of talking in one way and acting in another; and yet every friend of Mr. Roosevelt will find a difficulty in reconciling this appointment with his Chamber of Commerce speech. We do not aver that it is indefensible; but it certainly requires a better defense than that which the newspapers have offered for it as though it were his own—which we doubt. That is, in brief, that the recent election has shown that the Addicks faction in Delaware has a popular majority in the Republican party, and therefore the President must be guided by its counsels in his appointments. This is neither political wisdom nor good morals. It is true, though reformers sometimes forget it, that the President cannot make appointments over so wide a country as ours from personal knowledge of the appointees; he must be guided by the counsels of others. It is also true that when his party is represented in Congress, the Senators and Representatives of the State are the President's natural counselors respecting appointments from that State, and that when it is not so represented the party organization in the State becomes his natural counselor. But they can never be more than his counselors; they can never be allowed to usurp his place and dictate to him. The final responsibility must rest with the President, to whom the law assigns the duty of making the appointments, and he in making them ought to reject the nominee of the party organization on personal grounds whenever better public officials can thereby be secured, and on political grounds whenever the party organization stands for policies which ought to be condemned. This principle has often been stated by Mr. Roosevelt, and in more than one significant case illustrated by his executive action.

It is also true—a truth abundantly illustrated in the political history of the country—that when there is a factional fight within the party, it is politically extremely unwise for the President to identify himself with either faction, or attempt to help the one or crush the other by his appointments to Federal office. In such an event he should get his counsel from other quarters and make his appointments in disregard of both factions. The principle—if it can be dignified by so august a word—contended for by Mr. Roosevelt's defenders, that if one faction has in any election a majority of the party, it has a right to demand recognition of the President as his trustworthy counselor, if applied by Mr. Cleveland would have required him to support Croker in New York, Altgeld in Illinois, and Bryan in Nebraska. It is to affirm the correctness

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as a guide to Presidential action of Mr. Pickwick's advice: "'Who is Slumkey?' whispered Mr. Tupman. 'I don't know,' replied Mr. Pickwick in the same tone. 'Hush. Don't ask any questions. It's always best on these occasions to do what the mob do.' 'But suppose there are two mobs?" suggested Mr. Snodgrass. 'Shout with the largest,' replied Mr. Pickwick."

It is Mr. Roosevelt's real defenders, not his defamers, who insist that the President should not measure moral principles by accidental majorities; that he should not be governed in Delaware by a law of political action which he repudiates in Alabama. For in Alabama he refuses to be guided by the counsels of the Lily White Republicans, although they control the organization. He rightly repudiates them, because, by their exclusion of all negroes from the organization, they violate the fundamental principles of the Republican party. Does Mr. Addicks, by acting on the theory that votes are merchandise and that the election belongs to the highest bidder, any less grossly violate those principles? We cannot think that the President puts a higher estimation on political equality than he does on political honesty.

We shall not believe the defamation of the President by his pseudo-defenders without further evidence. His course can be defended only on one ground, namely, that Mr. Byrne has proved himself by his past record the best possible candidate Delaware can afford for the office to which he has been appointed, and that the President was under obligation to appoint him, not because his appointment would give support to the Addicks faction, but in spite of that fact. The press reports respecting the record of Mr. Byrne do not support this theory; but even if they did, we should still think that the evil of seeming to countenance so corrupt a campaign as that which Mr. Addicks is waging in Delaware would not be counterbalanced by appointing the best man in the State to represent the Nation in its criminal prosecutions. We cannot but wonder, if a case for bribery in Federal elections should be made up against Mr. Addicks, how much enthusiasm Mr. Roosevelt could expect from Mr. Byrne in the conduct of the prosecution. We shall wait, in common with Mr. Roosevelt's best friends, not without some anxiety, to see whether the future course of the Administration in the State of Delaware gives support to the defamatory defense which has been offered for this mistaken appointment.

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Labor Unions and the National Guard

The Painters' and Decorators' Union of Schenectady has expelled Mr. William Potter because he is a member of the National Guard, and at their demand the firm of Shafer & Barry have discharged him from their service, rather than face the peril of a threatened strike. They have accompanied this action with a certificate that Mr. Potter has been in their employ for the past four years, and recommending him to those wishing to employ a good mechanic willing to work for his employers' interest. The action of the Union is in consequence of Article 8 of its constitution, which provides that a member of the Union must not be a "militiaman, special police officer, or deputy marshal in the employ of corporations or individuals during strikes, lockouts, or other labor difficulties, and any member occupying any of the above positions shall be debarred from membership." The United States statutes provide that "every able-bodied male citizen of the respective States, resident therein, who is of the age of eighteen years and under the age of forty-five years, shall be enrolled in the militia," and the military code of the State of New York provides that "all able-bodied male citizens between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years who are residents of this State shall constitute the militia," with certain specified exceptions, and further provides that "the Governor shall have power, in case of insurrection, tumult, riot, or breach of the peace, or imminent danger thereof, to order into the active service of the State any part of the militia that he may deem proper;" and, finally, it provides that "every member of the militia ordered out, or who volunteers or is drafted under the provisions of this article, who does not appear at the time and place designated . . . shall be taken to be a deserter and

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dealt with as prescribed in the articles of war of the United States." Under these provisions of the law, Mr. Potter was apparently, and whether he chose or not, a part of the militia of this State; he was ordered out by the Governor to keep the peace owing to a riotous proceeding in the Hudson River valley; and if he had failed to respond to the call, he would have been a deserter, and liable to fine, imprisonment, or even death. We believe this gives all the facts necessary to enable our readers to form a judgment respecting the action of the Painters' and Decorators' Union of Schenectady.

We find it difficult to express in judicial language our own opinion. By its act this labor union denies the right of one of its members to fulfill his duties as a citizen to the State; it denies his right to earn an honest livelihood if he does fulfill his duties to the State; it denies the right of his employer to employ "a good mechanic, willing to work for his employers' interest," unless he is disloyal to the State. It is an attack upon the right of free labor, upon the right of free employment, upon citizenship, and upon the sovereignty of the State. For discouraging enlistments in the United States army during the Civil War, Mr. Vallandigham was arrested, tried, found guilty, and banished from the United States. Whether there is in the criminal code of this State any law adequate for the punishment of men who conspire to prevent service in the militia by loyal citizens of the State in times when rights of person and property are in peril, we do not know; if there is, the law should be promptly invoked, the officers of the Painters' and Decorators' Union of Schenectady arrested, tried, and, if convicted, should suffer exemplary punishment. If there is not such provision in the laws of this State, the Legislature owes to the people of the State no duty more immediate than enacting such law. The offense of the Painters' and Decorators' Union is somewhat aggravated by the fact that it has instituted a boycott against the Schenectady Railroad Company for employing non-union labor in the erection of a new car-barn, the object being to compel all workingmen in Schenectady to join the union, and then, by the enforcement of the provision in its constitution above cited, to prevent all workingmen from taking any share in preserving order in times of threatened riot. We are glad to be able to report that, according to interviews published in the daily papers, labor leaders in the city of New York have very generally expressed disapproval of the action of the Painters' and Decorators' Union of Schenectady.

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Places of Refuge

In the streets of great cities through which an endless stream of vehicles passes it has been found necessary to make what are called places of refuge where safety can be found when the throng of carriages becomes too great or the tangle of passing vehicles too intricate. In the rush of affairs, in the constant pressure of experience, in the strain and stress of work, every one needs places of refuge into which he can escape at times and pluck a moment's quiet—time enough to regain clearness of vision, to breathe quietly and sanely. There are many such refuges accessible to all who choose to seek them; refuges which do not lie at a distance where they would be inaccessible when men need them most. Such a refuge, and one of the greatest, is suggested by Balzac's phrase: "To live in the presence of great truths and eternal laws, that is what keeps a man patient when the world ignores him, and calm and unspoiled when the world praises him." When a man becomes impatient, irritable, soured, or when he becomes conceited, inflated, exacting, it is because he has lost his clearness of vision, his sense of the relative value of things, his definite knowledge of himself; caught in the stream, he runs to and fro in momentary confusion. What he needs is to find a refuge in which he can measure the real value of reputation or popularity, and the real significance of his intention and his devotion as compared with the world's ignorance or rejection of these things. No man is ever spoiled by popularity or success who is in the habit of taking refuge beside the great truths and the eternal laws; and no man is ever soured and loses heart and faith who looks, not to the recognition of the world, but to the reward of his own conscience, to the consciousness of his fidelity to his own aim, to his faith in the best things.

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The Spectator

A curious statement touching the late Rt. Hon. William Lidderdale seemed to the Spectator to deserve more than the casual mention it attracted in the press. It was a statement concerning his property, which, at the probate of his will, proved to amount to only about $5,000. For more than twenty years Mr. Lidderdale was closely associated with the management of the Bank of England as a director, deputy governor, and governor, positions offering obvious incidental opportunities for money-making. As no explanation of large losses was given to account for Mr. Lidderdale's small estate, the Spectator fell back, gladly, on the theory that he was a man singularly indifferent to personal profit, especially for one whose "profession" was practical finance; that he valued his work for itself, for its interest, its gift of power and possibilities of national service, regardless of its chances of selfish gain.

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The Spectator's interpretation of a "newspaper personal," perhaps imaginative, perhaps justified, led him to put a paradox to himself. With all our absorbing devotion to work, our "strenuousness," do we moderns dignify work in the sense our fathers dignified it? We subdivide work into infinite specialties, requiring often a mere technical deftness like that for successfully operating an automatic machine, at an evident loss of the all-round development in the days when a "smart man" was expected "to turn his hand to anything." We attach what Professor Münsterberg calls, with his German bluntness, an "absurd importance" to the child's first budding signs of an aptitude. But do we recognize superiority in one kind of work over another, or draw distinctions, provided a person does that for which he is "best adapted," meaning usually the vocation that for him is the most remunerative? The Spectator can recall the time when there was distinction in practicing one of the "learned professions" even at a considerable sacrifice of income. He remembers how foreign visitors used to comment on the unique social status in America of the "poor literary man." Some of his oldest friends were wont to speak of one kind of business as "more respectable" than another. But nowadays one hears it said that a young man "cannot afford" to choose this or that for his life-work, because the sacrifice in income would be too great to justify the choice. Hence, for prudential reasons, he should, it is held, choose a calling he likes less. In so far as such a view accurately describes a general modern attitude toward work, it implies a comparative lack of satisfaction in work as work which is a distinct loss to modern life.

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The Spectator throws out these suggestions cautiously and tentatively, realizing that in so large and complex a question any generalization is perhaps more likely to be wrong than right, and that there are numerous instances of an opposite attitude to be accounted for. He recalls the noble saying, he thinks of Agassiz, "I have no time to make money," words which to-day characterize many men of science and scholarship, of art and letters, as truly as they once did the Harvard savant. Public life, too, still offers many noble and notable examples of the same spirit—a Lord Pauncefote counting it worth his while to die a comparatively poor man if he could thus contribute to insuring harmony of aim and relations between Great Britain and the United States, and a Governor Taft cheerfully sacrificing a great career at the metropolitan bar to teach self-government to the Filipinos.

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Passing over that enthusiasm of altruism whose devotees in shining array have, if equaled, never been surpassed, the Spectator recalls in the circle of his own acquaintance conspicuous, if commonplace, examples of putting the work before the return. First of all he would name a friend of years, one of those men whom to know is to honor, trust, and love, member of a family of distinguished lawyers, who, against the strongest protest, turned his back upon assured success at the bar to become a teacher, because he loved boys and teaching appealed to him while law did not. With a comfortable income and the satisfaction of knowing that in a

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smaller sphere he is repeating the career of Dr. Arnold, he can well afford, the Spectator thinks, to miss the gains of a large practice. Another friend is a provincial clergyman, pastor of a church well filled but not over-prosperous in the sense of including "the wealthy parishioner," a man endowed with a genius for giving popular illustrated lectures. So unusual has been the success of each winter's course in his own church that he has received numerous offers for lecture tours. These he has always refused, despite the temptation of fame and money, because with him the parish and its work come first to the exclusion of everything else—a decision for which the Spectator has honored him, though often arguing with him in vain that it was mistaken. A third friend, whom the Spectator always associates with these, is a trained nurse, whose interest is solely in patients, the more desperately sick the more intensely interesting, and seldom, if ever, in people. When once convalescence sets in, and, from her point of view, there is little to do, she grows restive and begs the doctor to find some one to take her place. Her devotion to cases apparently fatal is a scientific passion.

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Instances like these, which all of us can multiply indefinitely out of personal experience, are, the Spectator is sure, as truly typical of the spirit of the age, on one side at least, as are instances illustrating an opposite attitude toward work. Holding no brief and having no conclusions of his own to urge, merely, in fact, talking out loud, the suggestion comes to him that in so far as there is a tendency to ignore the character of work and to judge it by its results, it may be due in large part to the constant modern emphasis upon "the efficiency of labor." In all the daily talk about "invasion of the foreign markets" and "competing for the world's trade" this significant phrase has in its reiteration become almost a shibboleth. The Spectator was recently an audience of one at a discussion of labor unions between a social progressive, more or less of a radical, and a manufacturer of old-fashioned ideas. The manufacturer, of course, insisted that unions lessen "the efficiency of labor." He quoted Mr. Schwab's dictum that when they demand shorter hours or higher pay they simply hamper successful manufacturing, but that in so far as they are able to curtail the output they render great success impossible. He then pointed to England as an example of what unionism can do to weaken the industrial efficiency of a nation in the competition with other nations. The radical granted, for argument's sake, what the manufacturer asserted of England, that, as a temporary condition, perhaps unionism had tended to reduce her industrial efficiency. But he argued, on the other hand, that unionism had raised the standard of living for the individual laborer, had made him more of a man, had given him a life better worth the living, and that this eventually must make him also a better, because a more intelligent, workman, and contribute ultimately toward a new and higher development of industrial efficiency.

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What in particular interested the Spectator in the radical's argument was the character of his conclusion. He ingeniously avoided the admission that the improved condition of labor is a good of itself perhaps worth all it costs a nation in possibly impaired efficiency, but, equally with the manufacturer, insisted on efficiency as "the great desideratum." This phase of the discussion carried the Spectator back to his college days, when the professor of political economy used to try to draw fine distinctions between "productive" and "unproductive" labor. "Even an editor," he was wont to conclude —the Spectator hopes his friends of the Outlook staff will note the "even"—"may be a 'productive' laborer if he so conducts his paper as to inform, to awaken interest in significant doings (which few editors do), for thus he contributes to the advancement of intelligence, an important element in increasing productiveness." This ingenuity of distinction seems to the Spectator as "on all fours," as the lawyers say, with a common argument to justify a vacation, that a man "works better" for having it, not that he ought to have it as a human being because play-spells are a part of right living.

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Temperance Reform

I.—The Difficulties with Current Methods

By Professor W. O. Atwater

Of Wesleyan University

The Men's Assembly of the First Methodist Church in Middletown, Conn., was organized at the instance of the pastor, the Rev. Herbert Welch, D.D., for discussing topics of the times in their ethical relations. It meets on Sundays at the Sunday-school hour. Last winter Professor Atwater, of the Department of Chemistry of Wesleyan University, was asked by the Assembly to read before it a paper on substitutes for the saloon. Professor Atwater is widely known as a physiological chemist, as the head of an important government inquiry regarding the food and nutrition of man, and as the projector and conductor of a series of original and very interesting scientific experiments on the nutritive action of alcohol in the human system. This latter investigation was made in behalf of the Committee of Fifty for the Investigation of the Liquor Problem, of which Professor Atwater is a member. Although a believer in total abstinence and practicing it, much severe and, we think, unreasonable and unjust criticism has been made of him for the publication of the scientific conclusions to which he was led by these inquiries and those of other investigators regarding alcohol as a physiological agent. The outcome of Professor Atwater's address to the Middletown "Men's Assembly" was a series of discussions covering a period of more than four months, in which various phases of the temperance problem were considered. Reports of governmental and private investigators, and many books and papers of authority, were used as works of reference, and the somewhat varied experience of the members of the Assembly was brought into the discussion. The average attendance was about twenty-five. Among the members were a lawyer, a banker, merchants, manufacturers, mechanics, clergymen, and teachers. They are such representative men as may be found in the churches of small New England cities; the kind of men who manage the affairs, do the work, and pay the bills of the church and are equally active and influential in public affairs. If they are in any way exceptional, it is because they are nearly all strong temperance men. The President and Vice-President of the Assembly have long been active temperance workers. The fruit of this study and discussion is found in the following resolutions, the adoption of which was practically unanimous on the part of the Assembly after eighteen weeks' investigation and discussion:

RESOLUTIONS OF MEN'S ASSEMBLY OF THE FIRST M. E. CHURCH, MIDDLETOWN, CONN.

This is a day of increasing interest in temperance reform. In other countries as well as our own, the liquor problem is being approached in a serious scientific and religious spirit, as a vast and intricate question related not only to personal morals, but to the family, social, industrial, and political life of the Nation. The urgent need of the day is a platform and a programme of sufficient breadth and liberality to unite all true friends of temperance reform. As a result of our discussion, we express the following as our convictions:

(1) We recognize that Christian liberality forbids us to condemn all use of alcoholic drinks as necessarily sinful. In view of the great evils of intemperance, the most of us believe that abstinence from intoxicating liquors as a beverage is for us as individuals a wise and Christian course, both for personal character and for brotherly helpfulness. But we do not undertake to judge those who differ with us in this. We allow to all the same freedom of conscience which we claim for ourselves; and we believe that union of the friends of temperance reform, whether total abstainers or not, is both desirable and possible.

(2) We favor accurate and earnest instruction in the schools on the physiological and moral effects of intemperance; and we rejoice in the revision of the Connecticut law, which now gives to the public-school teachers more liberty and responsibility, and to the scholars more rational and useful teaching.

(3) We recognize that there is a powerful and legitimate social demand of which the liquor saloon now takes advantage, but which should be met by other agencies. Believing the sum of the influence of the liquor saloon to be degrading, we welcome all proper substitues for it; such as cheap and clean restaurants, gymnasiums, game-rooms, reading-rooms, libraries, and people's institutes, saloons and clubs where intoxicants are not sold, recreation piers and parks, and public baths. These, properly directed and used, may lessen the demand for the liquor saloon. But, most of all, we believe that the home should be the real social center, the source of a pure citizenship and churchmanship; and we regard as true temperance measures a proper diet, a plentiful supply of light, air, and water, space enough for health and recreation, and all other physical conditions for the decency and cheer of the home.

(4) We recognize that State prohibition has brought excellent results in some cities and many rural communities. But in view of the facts that of sixteen States at one time or another under prohibitory laws, only five still keep those laws upon their statute-books or in their constitutions; that in the larger communities of even these States such laws have generally failed of enforcement in any considerable degree, we are compelled to question whether the immediate legal solution of the temperance problem, in the present state of public opinion and practice, is to be looked for through the extension of State prohibition. The advantages of that plan may be largely obtained through local option, which we heartily favor, and the disadvantages of an unenforced law be at least in part

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avoided. The severer restriction of the number of licenses, which on the whole must be regarded as a temperance measure, has as its logical accompaniment either higher license fees or the removal of the traffic from private hands.

(5) The experiments in the conduct of the liquor business by philanthropic companies, or by the State or local community itself (as exemplified in the Scandinavian company systems, and the dispensary system in some of our Southern States), in order to discourage treating and drinking on the premises, to better the moral tone of the saloons, and to eliminate from the traffic the element of private gain—which leads to pushing the sales, evading the law, and opposing reforms—such experiments deserve the careful attention of earnest men, and, in our opinion, might with advantage be tried in our own town. If the profits from the sale of liquors under these restrictions could be applied to the maintenance of such substitutes as are mentioned in (3), the traffic might be made in some degree self-destroying.

(6) To sum up: All effective temperance reform must be based on the law of truth and the law of service. The facts concerning the hygienic, educational, economic, ethical, and legislative aspects of the question must be faced with absolute candor. The true objectives of temperance reform—on its negative side—should be clearly defined as the reduction and abolition of drunkenness and the extinction of the saloon as it now exists. On its positive side, temperance reform should aim at developing personal integrity and will, with the sense of brotherhood and mutual responsibility; at conducting inquiry and scattering information; and at providing substitutes which will offer to the community all that is desirable in the saloon as it now is, without the social, moral, and political evils with which it abounds.

The saloon rests upon three props: the desire for drink, the desire for society, and the financial interest of the dealers and (through license fees and otherwise) of the community. These should be carefully dealt with as distinct items in the problem. Legislation that will allow to separate communities freedom to make experiments in the control of the traffic is greatly to be desired, and we favor such legislation in Connecticut.

We believe that an organization is now needed which, recognizing the increasing prevalence of the spirit of conciliation, the search for truth, and the desire to render useful service, will seek to unite all temperance workers to secure thorough study of the subject, education of public sentiment, rational legislation, and proper substitutes for the saloon. Such a specific effort may prove long and costly, but will, we believe, lead to a day of better things.

This method of attacking the drink problem seems to the Editors of The Outlook so reasonable, so wise, and so indicative of what might profitably be done throughout the country that they have invited Professor Atwater to present to the readers of The Outlook a review of what has been done in the past in this country in combating the drink evil, and an outline of proposed remedies which seem to him to be scientific, practicable, and efficacious. The first of these two articles follows; in the second Professor Atwater will propose a platform, a programme, and an organization to carry it out, broad enough to include not only total abstainers, but those who draw a distinction between abstinence and temperance.—THE EDITORS.

"I THINK a great many people are waiting, and with a degree of eagerness, for an opportunity to do something practical in temperance reform."

The above remark of a thoughtful observer expresses the sentiment which led to the discussion whose outcome is given in the note by the Editors of The Outlook which precedes this article. I purpose in this and a succeeding paper to say something of the details considered in the discussion and the conclusions reached, and to add some suggestions of my own as to what thoughtful people may do to promote rational temperance work.

I think one of the strongest impressions produced upon the members of the Assembly was the sense of the complexity of the drink problem. This is well stated by Professor F. G. Peabody, in speaking of the "later developments of the so-called temperance cause:"[1]

Here is a social movement which has been very generally regarded as an isolated and specialized work. A few obvious remedies have seemed sufficient to meet the portentous evil of the drink habit. The pledge of abstinence, the prohibition of sale, the physiological instruction of children, the constant agitation of public sentiment—these and kindred methods of direct reform have appeared to bound the sphere of temperance work. More and more, however, it has become evident that, beyond these specific agencies of reform, there are on every side of the temperance question influences and movements which are among its most threatening enemies or its most powerful allies. Domestic, economic, even psychological and racial conditions are intimately correlated with the problem of drink. Is it drink which destroys the family, or is it the disordered family life which tempts to drink? Is the drink habit a morbid passion, or is it in many cases a normal and healthy craving for recreation which drives men to the saloon? Is it true, as one distinguished economist has said, that the thirst for liquor among workingmen is not so much a question of drink as of food, and that to know why a poor man drinks one has but to look in his dinner-pail? Is it drink which robs men of their earnings, or is it the fluctuations of earnings which drives men to drink? Would the drink traffic be less pernicious if wisely converted into a municipal industry? Is the moral tone of the community weakened by prohibitory legislation? How does it happen that the wine-drinking peoples of southern Europe are temperate, and the water-drinking Anglo-Saxons intemperate? These are but indications of the varied inquiries which now confront any

[1] In the chapter on the Correlation of the Social Questions of his instructive and inspiring book "Jesus Christ and the Social Question."

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one who looks below the surface of the problem of temperance. What seemed to be a detached question concerning a personal habit is in fact correlated with almost every movement of social or economic reform. The most effective attack upon the drink habit may come of some flank movement, in the interest of better homes, or healthy amusement, or regular work, or nourishing food, or State control, or the education of a new and superior desire. . . . Temperance reform was in grave danger of being side-tracked from the main line of modern interest, and given over to politicians and the pious. It is now seen to be one aspect of the comprehensive social movement of the time, and, to many careful observers, the problem of economic progress appears to be in very large degree dependent upon the problem of drink.

A most interesting feature of the discussion was the interest in the statistical details of the subject, as set forth in the Government reports and those of Messrs. Rowntree and Sherwell and of the Committee of Fifty. These were studied and their conclusions considered in the light of other reading and personal observations of the members.[1] It was especially gratifying to see with what open-minded fairness the logical inferences were accepted, even though they opposed long-cherished beliefs and convictions which, with some, had been almost a part of religion. One of the most cultivated and influential members said, with an admixture of pleasantry and earnestness, "I am a converted man." The resolutions were adopted with singular unanimity, but it was a common remark that if they had been presented at the first meeting they would have met most serious opposition. I lay much stress upon these features because, although the Assembly was made up of a small number of men in a small city, my observation elsewhere leads me to believe that their spirit is only a reflection of that of a great body of the community—that body which gives tone to public opinion, ultimately decides legislation and its enforcement, and can be depended upon to promote what is intrinsically most true and is best for social welfare. If this view is correct, it offers great encouragement for the future.

[1] The principal works of reference were three reports of the Committee of Fifty, one on the Legal and one on the Economic Aspects of the Liquor Problem, and one on Substitutes for the Saloon; that of Rowntree and Sherwell on the Temperance Problem and Social Reform; and the reports on the economic phases of the subject in the Twelfth Annual Report of the United States Commissioner of Labor and the Twenty-sixth Annual Report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor.

As a criticism of methods of temperance work, the resolutions are in part destructive, but they are also definitely constructive. On the destructive side they assume that prohibition in the ordinary sense, that is, State prohibition, though efficient in some communities, is in the main a failure; they oppose the doctrine that all drinking is necessarily sinful, and they really protest against the current method of enforcing a specific form of instruction in temperance physiology in the public schools. These strictures upon three prominent features of temperance reform in the United States and the favoring of local option may perhaps offend or grieve some most earnest and devoted temperance workers, but if those who disagree with the conclusions had heard the discussions, they could not have disapproved the spirit.

On the constructive side the resolutions approve total abstinence, though they do not insist upon it as a duty for every one; they recommend specific agencies for promoting temperance, such as substitutes for the saloon, attractive homes, proper diet; they favor the testing of such measures as the company and dispensary systems for controlling the sale of liquor; they call for thorough study of the whole subject and the education of public opinion; what seems to me best of all, they place the whole matter on the high ethical basis of self-control, upbuilding of character, and service by example; and, finally, they propose a definite form of organized effort to make these methods more effective.

The chief representative of the drink evil, and a cause of great individual, social, and political injury, is the saloon. To oppose it successfully, we must know in what its strength consists.

The saloon has three powerful supports: the thirst for drink, the need of a part of the community for social intercourse, and pecuniary profit.

The taste for drink is very general; it often increases with the using, and the saloon-keeper has learned how to foster it. But if the evidence of men who know the saloon and its patrons is to be accepted, this liking of alcohol for itself is the least of the three factors.

The social need is legitimate and very large, and the saloon meets it with won-

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derful skill and success. The life of thousands of wage-workers is monotonous, how sadly so most readers of The Outlook are too fortunate to know. The number of men whose homes are unattractive is great, and the number of those who have no homes to go to perhaps even greater. The saloon attracts the transient visitor, and serves as the "poor man's club." The social instinct in man is strong; he is happy with his fellows; he wants a place where he can meet them on equal footing, without restraint, and without obligation save that for which he pays. The saloon gives him exactly what he wants, and the social glass makes it all the more acceptable. Despite the harmfulness of the saloon, some of the most competent and candid students of the subject question whether there are not many cases, especially in large cities, where it could ill be spared unless a social substitute were provided.

The manufacture and sale of spirituous liquors is a great business interest, thoroughly organized and very profitable. The producer and wholesale dealer are back of the retailer. The retailer not only makes money, but has large influence, and is often a political leader. License fees help to relieve the burden of the taxpayer. Manufacturer, wholesaler, retailer, and the public derive profit, and the patron satisfaction, from the saloon. For a business which is so large and so remunerative, it is advantageous and easy to acquire political influence and to enlist the public in its support. All this the saloon does with great effectiveness.

None but those who have carefully studied into the matter can realize the strength of the social and financial foundations of the saloon. Hitherto these factors have been neglected, and the main effort against the liquor evil has been through legislation.

The two principal methods employed in the United States for the legal restriction of the liquor traffic are prohibition and license. Prohibition is either State or local, but the term is ordinarily applied to State legislation, which endeavors to do away with the retail trade altogether, save for medicinal purposes. It imposes one form of restraint upon the whole State, whether the individual communities support it or not. License in various forms is an attempt at regulation by confining the retail sale to licensed sellers. High license attempts, by large license fees, to reduce the number, limit the location, and improve the character of places where liquor is sold. Local option generally combines the features of both prohibition and license—that is, the State allows the individual community, be it city, ward, town, or county, to select the form of regulation or restriction which it is most ready to support. The details of these methods, and especially the forms of license and local option, vary widely in the different States. The following statistics are taken mainly from the most lucid and instructive summary in the volume by Rowntree and Sherwell on "The Temperance Problem."

Prohibition has been adopted at various periods by sixteen States, and compulsorily enforced by order of the Federal Government in one Territory, Alaska. It has been declared unconstitutional in New York, tried and abandoned in ten States,[1] and is now the law of five, viz.: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Kansas, and North Dakota. In the first three of these the question of repeal is under active consideration.

In Vermont, an agricultural State, with no large cities and with a very intelligent and high-minded population, the burning question at the polls in the State election last September was the change of the liquor law. Such change was advocated, on high ethical grounds as well as those of mere public expediency, by many of the best citizens of the State, including not a few who had been the most earnest supporters of prohibition. The campaign was one of the most exciting in the history of the State. The regular Republican party, which has never before failed of a majority, favored a referendum leaving the decision of the question to a later vote of the people. It polled 45.6 per cent. of the total vote of 69,927. An independent movement, which demanded local option with choice between prohibition and high license, and drew mainly from the regular Republican but partly from the regular Democratic vote, cast 40.3 per cent. The regular Democratic

[1] Delaware, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Indiana, Nebraska, Michigan, Illinois, Iowa (replaced by "mulct law"), South Dakota.

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party, whose platform likewise urged local option with high license, cast 10.5 per cent.; while the vote of the regular Prohibition party, the only one that positively favored the retention of the present law, was 3.6 per cent. of the entire vote which was cast.

The license principle, in the form of high license, prevails in one State, Pennsylvania.

Local option in various forms now obtains in thirty-seven States. Seventeen of these[1] have local option by direct popular vote, applicable, *i.e.*, allowed, to all localities (urban and rural) alike. In these the communities which adopt prohibition as distinguished from license are almost exclusively rural. Six States[2] have "local option by direct popular vote, applicable to special localities or rural districts only." In nine[3] there is "indirect popular control," that is, "the control of the traffic is in the hands of municipal councils, etc.," the principal features being high license and local prohibition. In five[4] other forms of option obtain which are designated by "power of remonstrance," "petition," etc.; four of these have high license as a prominent feature, and one, South Carolina, has the option between the dispensary system and local prohibition. The dispensary system is also allowed as an option in some localities in Alabama, North Carolina, and Georgia.

In the local option States the cities and more thickly settled districts generally choose license, while prohibition is confined for the most part to the rural communities. In these latter it is often or generally successful, though the success not infrequently seems to depend upon the sale of liquor in near-by places, generally cities, which thus serve as "safety-valves."

In their interpretation of the history of fifty years of temperance legislation both the Legislative Sub-committee of the Committee of Fifty and Messrs. Rowntree and Sherwell are in full accord. The outcome is thus aptly summarized by the latter:

> The broad fact remains that in the rural districts of the United States, as is the case also in Canada, Sweden, and Norway, popular sentiment is generally on the side of restriction and prohibition of the liquor traffic, and enforcement of the law is found to be comparatively easy. In the larger towns and cities the conditions are different, and it is there that prohibition has been found impracticable.

The underlying principle here is simple. The enforcement of the law is left to the option of the individual community, and is successful in proportion as that community approves it. It is thus easy to see why the slow, somewhat varying, but, on the whole, steady and irrepressible current of enlightened public opinion in the United States, directed by experience, has set toward local option. In the various plans of local option the choice is usually between prohibition and license, but with the dispensary as another alternative in four States.

Prohibition has been backed by tremendous moral earnestness, and has had the support of many of the wisest and worthiest citizens. That it has done untold good in cultivating a moral sentiment in opposition to the liquor evil, that it has prevented the sale of liquor in many places, and diminished both its sale and use in many others, there is, I think, no question. And although the stern logic of events pronounces against State prohibition and the present reaction is natural and inevitable, it is perhaps both necessary and fortunate that the experiment should have had thorough trial. Society, like the individual, learns many of its best lessons from its failures. Where failure follows honest purpose, where the reasons are diligently sought, and where experience is utilized in improvement, there is the greatest hope for ultimate success.

The obvious reason for the failure is lack of popular support. But underneath this are three more fundamental difficulties. Prohibition has not a sufficiently clear and strong ethical basis to insure the needed public approval and support; where it does not prohibit it demoralizes; and it does not strike at the foundations of the saloon.

The want of public support was well stated by Governor Davis, of Rhode Island, in a message to the State Assem-

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[1] Arkansas, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Texas, Virginia.

[2] Alabama, Illinois, Maryland, Minnesota, New York, Ohio.

[3] California, Colorado, Delaware, Nebraska, New Jersey, Utah, Washington, West Virginia, Wyoming.

[4] District of Columbia, Indiana, Iowa, Oregon, South Carolina.

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bly in 1888, referring to the prohibitory law then in force and afterwards repealed:

> That the law is not efficient—and it is sadly inefficient—is for want of a sufficient public sentiment to enforce it. It is a thankless task to attempt to enforce a law which has not the hearty moral support of the community to sustain it. Laws may represent public opinion, but their enforcement is dependent almost wholly upon the public will, as contradistinguished from public opinion; and without a will the way will not be found.

No moral movement which has to meet organized and powerful opposition can be permanently successful, however worthy its purpose, unless the method has the clearest ethical basis. The ethical basis of prohibition is questioned by many of the worthiest citizens, especially by those who do not accept the doctrine that all use of alcohol is injurious and necessarily sinful, and by those who question the right of society to prohibit the sale of a commodity which so many want and believe they have the right to buy.

The demoralizing influence of unenforced prohibitory law is a very serious matter. Maine, the first prohibition State, gives an example. The "Maine law" was passed in 1851, and after various modifications was incorporated in the State Constitution in 1884. In many country towns it is enforced so effectively as to satisfy the best public and private sentiment and justify the claims of its earnest promoters; in most of the larger towns or cities it is a dead letter or worse, save for spasmodic attempts at its enforcement. In one city, Auburn, there is said to be fair enforcement of the law. This is made possible by the fact that in the city of Lewiston, just across the Androscoggin River, the sale of liquor is practically free, thus making a "safety-valve" for Auburn. Bangor, through the city government, has adopted what amounts to a definite system, by which any one can sell liquor in a saloon or hotel, or otherwise, as he chooses, so long as he observes certain regulations as to good order, time of closing, and the like. If these regulations are transgressed, the police interfere. At certain times, generally once a year, the seller is brought before a court and fined by the terms of the State law, and goes on selling as before. Thus the municipal authorities, with the approval of the community, openly defy both the law and the Constitution of the State. The "Bangor system" or something like it is in vogue in other cities in the State. The purchase and drinking of liquors are openly practiced in saloons and hotels at Augusta, the capital, during the sessions of the Legislature and by its members. Thus completely does public sentiment defy even the majesty of the law.

The train of evils that follow this violation of law by public consent is a long one. On pages 5 and 6 of the Report of the Committee of Fifty just cited are a summary of these evils and an appeal for truth and temperance that have the ring of an epistle of St. Paul.

In attempting to stop the use of liquor by stopping its sale, prohibition depends upon the statute-book. It does very little to interfere with the profits of the business, and nothing whatever to supply the social need. Until these two foundations are weakened, as prohibition does not and cannot weaken them, the saloon bids fair to stand secure.

This last objection applies equally to the license system. Restricting the number of saloons increases the profits of the holder of the license, and the license fee he has to pay is only an additional stimulus to him to make the most of the social feature in order to increase his custom.

The next paper will refer to such restrictive and constructive measures as the government monopoly, dispensary, and company systems in Russia, the United States, Sweden, Norway, and England, and suggest a platform, programme, and organization for temperance work.

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The Far Eastern Tropics

Studies in Colonial Administration

By Alleyne Ireland, F.R.G.S.

Author of "Tropical Colonization," etc.; Colonial Commissioner of the University of Chicago

I.—Introductory

THE most common fault to be observed in all discussions of administrative questions is the tendency to consider the introduction of some particular method or the carrying out of some particular reform as being very easy of accomplishment in any place which is a long way off. It is the New Yorker who sees no reason why London should not be covered with a network of car lines; it is the Londoner who can furnish you with a plan for the reform of municipal government in New York. The prevalence of this fault is easily accounted for. We are all familiar with the limitations which immediately surround us, and we are ever ready to urge them as an excuse for things done or omitted; but the limitations of a distant place always seem vague and unreal, and, as a natural consequence, the feasibility of any plan of administration appears to increase as the square of the distance to the point of application.

In the present series of articles an account is to be given of administrative methods in a number of Far Eastern Colonies, and the subject is to be approached from the standpoint of the limitations which are created by the local conditions prevailing in each dependency. But although in each Colony our analysis of the system of government is to be accompanied by an account of the peculiar circumstances to which the local administration is adjusted, it is necessary, for the better understanding of the matter, that a few general considerations in regard to colonial government should be set forth.

The colonies which are to form the subject of our inquiry lie in the tropics, and unless we develop clearly at the outset some of the fundamental conditions of tropical life, we shall be hampered by the necessity of explaining from time to time certain phenomena which may be accounted for once and for all by a statement of some of the general laws which govern civilization in the tropics.

The central idea from which we must start is this, that all human conditions, all human history, the whole expression of man in word and deed, are the result of the interaction of nature and man, of the animate and the inanimate—in other words, that civilization is the product of geographical environment. If we divide geographical environment into its unchangeable and its changeable factors, we find the former to consist of climate, the configuration of the land, and the nature of the soil; and the latter of the surface conditions, which may be changed, for example, by afforestation, deforestation, or agriculture; the situation of a country, the effects of which may be modified by the introduction of railways, steamships, and telegraph lines; the unhealthiness of a country, which may be counteracted to some extent by hygienic science.

The changeable conditions of geographical environment will form the proper subject of discussion when each Colony is dealt with separately, for we may then observe to what extent man has improved the advantages and overcome the disadvantages of his natural surroundings; our present concern is with the unchangeable factors, over which man has no control, and which may therefore be regarded as the origin of those fixed limitations which we must always have clearly before us when discussing any question which relates to the government of tropical countries. If we draw across a map of the world the Northern and Southern isotherm of 68° Fahrenheit—that is to say, a line passing through those places in the Northern and Southern hemispheres which have a mean annual temperature of 68° Fahrenheit—we cut off a belt of the earth's surface 3,600 miles across, lying roughly

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between 30° north latitude and 30° south latitude. This belt is called, for the sake of convenience, the heat belt. In this heat belt lie Mexico, the Central American Republics, the West Indies, the greater part of South America, practically the whole of Africa, Arabia, India, Burmah, Indo-China, the Malay Peninsula, the Malay Archipelago, Polynesia, and the Philippine Islands. Outside the heat belt lie the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, the greater part of Australia, Japan, the greater part of China, and the continent of Europe.

The extreme significance of this grouping becomes apparent when we reflect that, apart from the work done by Europeans and Americans in the tropics, the civilization of the heat belt has remained stationary for a thousand years, and that the advancement of humanity during that period has been carried on entirely by the inhabitants of those countries which lie outside the heat belt.

Bearing in mind the elements which go to make up our own civilization—Western civilization, so called—it is most important to realize that during the past five hundred years, to go no further, the people of the heat belt have added nothing whatever to what we understand by human advancement. The natives of the tropics and sub-tropics have not during that time made a single contribution of the first importance to art, literature, science, manufactures, or inventions; they have not produced an engineer, or a chemist, or a biologist, or a historian, or a painter, or a musician of the first rank; and even if we include half-castes and such natives as have enjoyed European education, the list of eminent men produced by the heat belt can be counted on the fingers of one hand.

The point which I wish to emphasize is not that the civilization we prize so dearly is better than that of the heat belt, but that it is utterly different, and that no student of colonial problems who fails to adjust his observations to this overwhelming disparity can hope to reach any true understanding of the facts which fall under his notice.

It is necessary that we should examine the causes which lie at the back of the great differences which exist between tropical and non-tropical civilizations, for, with our tendency to overlook the limitations of places with which we are unfamiliar, there is a danger that we may underestimate the difficulties involved in reconciling these differences, and may cheerfully follow the lead of those who believe that the advanced state of knowledge in non-tropical countries has destroyed the significance of the race-characteristics of tropical people so far as they constitute an element in the general problem of colonial administration.

The factor which comes earliest into play in the development of peoples is the accumulation of wealth, for, so long as any society is so situated that each member must work year in year out to obtain his food, clothing, and housing, there can be no advance in knowledge and no real progress. As soon, however, as there is an accumulated capital to draw from, some members of a society are relieved of the necessity of constant physical toil, and mental development begins. But in primitive societies the accumulation of wealth is regulated by two elements—the extent and nature of the labor which a community puts into the soil, and the extent and nature of the return which the soil yields to the labor bestowed on it; and each of these elements is the product of geographical environment.

It is clear that the climate of a country determines to a great extent the labor conditions which prevail there. Thus, in extreme climates labor is sure to be irregular, for, on the one hand, the severity of the winter and the shortness of the days, and, on the other hand, the intense heat and the dryness of the soil in summer, render continuous labor throughout the year impossible. This irregularity of labor is followed by the worst results, for it produces a general condition of apathy and helplessness in the people, which, being transmitted through centuries, acquires the rigidity of a race characteristic. I cannot refrain here from drawing the reader's attention to a fact to which I have frequently referred elsewhere—namely, our readiness to accept extreme cold as a bar to civilization and our refusal to accord a similar influence to extreme heat. Any limits we care to set to the development of Terra del Fuego on account of its climate will be received

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without remark; but if we attempt to assign bounds to the progress of Mindanao, through which the heat-equator passes, a thousand voices are raised in protest. But to take up the thread of our argument. It is evident that we must seek the beginnings of civilization in those countries where, either from the nature of the climate the labor conditions were favorable to the production of a steadfast and thrifty people, or where from the nature of the soil the return to labor was very great and favored the easy accumulation of wealth. Under all circumstances, however, the latter cause would work more rapidly than the former, for it is produced by a direct action, whereas the other is the result of a reflex action; or, as Buckle has expressed it, "in one case the effect depends on the relation between the soil and its own produce—the operation of one part of external nature upon another; in the other case the effect depends on the relation between the climate and the laborer—that is, the operation of external nature not upon itself, but upon man." Accordingly, as might be expected, we find that the earliest civilizations developed in the most fertile parts of Asia, Africa, and America, in those countries where the geographical conditions made possible that accumulation of wealth which is the first condition of human progress. With low wages for labor and high wages for capital, and with the mass of people excluded from the right of land-ownership, wealth accumulated very rapidly in the early tropical States—India, Egypt, Peru, and Mexico—and at a time when the non-tropical countries were still sunk in barbarism these tropical States enjoyed a comparatively high degree of civilization.

To-day it is the tropics that are in a state of comparative barbarism, and it is in non-tropical countries that we find the highest civilization. We must not seek to account for this change on the principle of the rise and fall of nations, and dismiss the matter with the idea that another turn of the wheel will effect another reversal of position. One nation, one civilization, may fall and another may rise, but there is no resurrection of nations or civilizations; these changes fall within the orderly process of evolution, and a type once discarded is never revived.

It is clear that any civilization which is based on the fertility of the soil and not on the energy of man contains within itself the seed of its own destruction. Where food is easily obtained, where there is little need for clothing or houses, where, in brief, unaided nature furnishes all man's necessities, those elements which produce strength of character and vigor of mind are wanting, and man becomes the slave of his surroundings. He acquires no energy of disposition, he yields himself to superstition and fatalism; the very conditions of life which produced his civilization set the limit of its existence. Thus it happens that tropical man, having been molded into a particular form by his environment, having, in fact, after many centuries, acquired his race characteristics, finds himself, when confronted with new conditions, incapable of action and helpless to defend himself. It is then that a hardier race steps in, whether by accident or design, and establishes a new dominion founded on principles which the weaker race can neither understand nor adopt.

If this has been the history of tropical peoples, that of the non-tropical peoples has been exactly opposite in every respect. In the temperate zones civilization had its origin and man acquired his race characteristics under conditions the very reverse of those which prevail in the tropics. In the temperate zones the three prime conditions of existence were clothing, housing, and animal food; and these, so far from being supplied by nature, could be obtained only in a severe conflict with nature. Wild beasts had to be slain that their flesh might serve for food, their skins for clothing; forests had to be felled and the earth itself robbed in order that wood and stone might be obtained for the construction of houses which would afford shelter from the cold of winter. Man existed only by virtue of the extent to which he rose superior to his surroundings. Under such circumstances progress was slow; but it was accomplished under conditions which left each generation a little more advanced than the last, which improved the stock by killing off the inefficients, and which gradually developed in man the resources of his intellect. For non-tropical man nature was not a mysterious power which ruled his life and to which a blind obedience must be yielded;

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it was an enemy which must be fought. Each success left man emboldened and encouraged, and each obstacle overcome made him more impatient of those which remained.

The history of Western civilization is the history of man's emancipation from the tyranny of his surroundings; that of tropical civilization is the record of his enslavement. The significance of this antithesis lies in the fact that whereas in tropical civilization each succeeding day, by building up a heritage of increasing weakness and dependence, wrote failure in ever-darkening letters across the page of history, each hour of Western civilization marked some advance and yielded to man some new augmentation of his powers.

Before drawing together the thread of our argument and applying our conclusions to the immediate matter under consideration—the problem of the government of tropical people by non-tropical methods—a few instances may be drawn from history of the operation of the forces which have been described above.

The first consideration which presents itself is that no division of the earth's surface can be made which is so mutually exclusive of types of civilization as that which puts mankind into a heat belt and two temperate zones. If we make a division east and west, and compare countries of like latitude, we obtain no violent contrasts comparable to those obtained under the other division. Leaving out such sparsely populated territories as Siberia and South America, we see a high civilization in the United States and Canada as well as in Europe; and Russia presents points of similarity to China as well as to western Europe. If we take language as our standard, it is found that English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Russian, give us no great dividing line; that contributions to human advancement have been made for centuries in each tongue; and that if we would secure a differentiation along this line we must compare the languages of Europe with those of the tropics, arriving by this method at our old division.

An interesting confirmation of our theory is furnished by the rise and decadence of Greece, Italy, Spain, and Portugal as the great powers of the world, and by the gradual northern movement of the center of the highest civilization. The climatic conditions of those countries which lie in the south of Europe are more nearly tropical than those of the northerly countries, and consequently in them civilization developed more quickly; but at a later date, when the northern countries had reached, by more tedious processes, a certain degree of civilization, they took the scepter from their southern neighbors, as the latter had taken it from Egypt and northern Africa; and for the same reason, namely, that the climatic discipline of the country to the north produced qualities of dominance.

To note but one more fact which bears on our theory. It is interesting to recall that the tide of conquest since the Middle Ages has, with very few exceptions, run from north to south. The only permanent conquests east and west in like latitudes have been those in which an overwhelming superiority of numbers and resources has rested with one of the parties to the contest, as for instance in the partition of Poland and the conquest of North America by France, Spain, and England. Yet practically the whole of Africa, the whole of tropical America, and the greater part of tropical Asia have been conquered and are to-day ruled by northern nations.

I am aware that the above brief outline of a theory leaves many things unaccounted for—the existence, for instance, of a civilization like that of the North American Indian outside the heat belt—but the broad outlines are, I hope, indicated with sufficient clearness to justify an application of the principles which have been developed in the course of our inquiry. Any nation which undertakes the administration of a tropical territory is charged with a twofold task—the formulation of a colonial policy, and the determination of the means by which that policy is to be carried out. On the most important point of colonial policy there can be no halting between two opinions. Having regard to the entire dissimilarity of Western civilization and that of the tropics, it must be determined at the outset what ideals are to prevail in the system of administration. In this matter the policy of all nations has been the same. Where the majority of the inhabitants of a colony belong to a civilization differing greatly from that of the sovereign State,

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the character of the administration has always been determined by the ideals of the dominant power; and native methods have been abolished. It is not a mere question of excluding the natives from office—Englishmen fill scarcely one-fourth of the offices in India, and Dutch officials are outnumbered by native officials in Java—but of imparting a particular character to the system of goverment.

It may be taken for granted that in tropical colonies controlled by Europeans or Americans, Western methods of government will be insisted on, and there remains then the problem of insuring the continued existence of a government of Western character. In regard to this problem there exists the greatest diversity of opinion, and it is here that the importance of a clear view of the origin and permanence of race characteristics becomes apparent.

When a tropical colony is first taken over, every one is agreed that the new order of things must be established under alien guidance; but opinion is soon divided on the question as to whether the natives, having once been shown the Western method of government, may be trusted, after a period of tutelage, to accept the new ideals, or whether, from the inherent differences in race characteristics, a Western government can be maintained in tropical countries only as long as white men are on the spot to keep things in line. Those who hold the former view are divided by the difference in their estimates of the time which must elapse before the leading-strings may be cast off; some consider it a question of years, some of generations, others of centuries. My own opinion, based on a consideration of the facts referred to in this article, and on observations made during a long residence in the tropics, is that we may be right or wrong in assuming that our methods, which were developed under conditions differing most completely from those we are now considering, are better suited to tropical countries than those of native rule; but that of this there can be no doubt whatever, that if native ideals are to prevail, the substantial control of affairs must remain in the hands of natives, and that if the administration is to be conducted on Western lines the control must rest with white men.

It is very easy to misrepresent a theory of this kind, to call it an advocacy of despotism, to credit one who holds it with a desire to oppress the natives of the tropics and to destroy their civilization. But it is a theory capable of a very different interpretation. It is one which, if accepted in good faith, places upon the colonizing powers a solemn duty and a grave responsibility for the honest and efficient administration of the affairs of people whose development has reached the limits imposed by inexorable natural laws. It is a theory which will yield to any people the utmost degree of self-government consistent with the maintenance of a set standard, which will foster every native institution which does not endanger that standard, which will rejoice in every fact which makes for the proof of its own falsity, which will hope against hope that help, guidance, and encouragement may within measurable time change that which it has taken immeasurable time to produce.

Hongkong.

My Quest

By Bessie L. Russell

I searched for love in heart of city's hum;
I searched for love upon the shining sand
Of ocean beach; and then on towering cliffs I sung
A pleading song that love unto my heart might come:
But love came not.

I searched for love no more, but labored sore
To ease those hearts whom sorrow 'd touched before;
Faint hope that in sweet work I'd surely find
Some compensation for a fate unkind—
When, lo! love came.

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Sheep and Shepherds of the West

By Charles Moreau Harger

THE shepherd, from earliest times and in the nature of things a man of peace, has become in these latter days, on the great ranges of the Northwest, involved in struggle and bloodshed. One of the most striking chapters in the history of the Nation is that of the battle for free range. The sheepmen and the cattlemen are the contestants, and the end is not yet.

Sheep-raising on the prairies is in many ways fascinating. The methods are simple, the returns have been for many years abundant. The shepherd is in evidence from the Rio Grande to the mountains of Montana and Idaho, the home of the blizzard. Over the vast unoccupied reaches of Wyoming the herders wander, in Texas they have their home, and in Oregon they vie with the cattle-owners for possession of the free range. The profits are large when the business is well managed, and the temptation is great for speculation.

In the East the sheep-owner lives on a farm and possesses a few well-bred animals which are pastured on his own land and carefully housed during the winter in warm barns. On the plains the rancher may not own a foot of ground, and his thousands of sheep drift through a half-dozen States in the course of a season. Instead of the heavy-wooled merinos that must have dainty care, the range has the coarser-wooled breeds, with their capacity for long-distance traveling and for turning off both wool and mutton. Herein lies the profit, for where the producer of cattle can receive from his animals only the price of the beef, the sheep-raiser first shears the fleece and then markets the food product.

So there has grown up in the West the industry of sheep-raising for these two objects, and it has led to a new condition of the industry.

The sheepman is a nomad. He dwells in loneliness. It is one of the characteristics of his life that he is able to exist for months without the sight of a human being, except at long intervals that of the messenger who brings him food. These floaters live on no man's land. They own not a foot of ground, but wander through the year with their flocks. Sometimes one firm owns many of these flocks, each with 3,000 head and watched over by the herder in his wagon-home. The food supply is sent to them by a messenger who goes out at regular intervals, meeting the shepherd by appointment. For the rest the watcher of the flocks is alone. "Cattle-herders grow rough, but sheep-herders go crazy," one flock-master put it. He meant that there is, in the long weeks of life on the plain, associated only with the gentle woolly creatures and the faithful dog, a strain that undermines the mind of some men. Herders have suddenly gone daft, and left their flocks to scatter and be lost.

In the States like Montana and Idaho the flocks spend the summer up among the pine-surrounded parks of the mountain ranges. In the winter they come near the railroads and are supposed to subsist on buffalo-grass. But there are stacks of alfalfa and prairie hay for them to eat during the storms, if the blizzards do not become too severe, so the losses are not heavy. It is when the sleet covers the ground and the fierce winds blow that the flocks drift, despite all efforts of the herders, eventually piling in a living mass, each sheep trying to crawl upon another for warmth. Tens of thousands are thus lost every winter.

The shearing season comes in the late spring, and then the sheep are driven close to the shipping stations, it being easier to do this than to haul the wool. The shearing is done by machines in these days. No more does the worker tire his fingers clipping wearily at the fleece. The gang that takes the job of shearing a flock rigs up a long rod run by power; to this are attached the clippers, each being like a barber's hair-clipper, but fastened at the end of a flexible tube. The sheep are divested of their coats in a twinkling; the fleece is gathered, tied, and placed in a great sack ready for transportation to market. The shearers receive eight cents per sheep,

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one-fourth cent going to the gatherer. There is an effort being made by union to raise the price to nine cents. The Western sheep, with their breeding for mutton as well as for wool, do not give many twenty-pound fleeces like those of the Eastern merinos, the product being nearer half that figure. After the shearing there comes (especially in the States to the south) a dipping to clean the skin of disease. One by one the bleating creatures are submerged in great vats of prepared fluids, and come out ready for another twelvemonth of travel.

Then the herder takes them and starts for the desert. He is inexpressibly sorry to depart. It is a dreary, tiresome, and uneventful life that he has to face. Sheep are slight company. They are too docile to call even for the exercise of much skill. They are forever the herder's wards and dependents.

Wives and children do not have much part in the sheep-herder's scheme of life. The nomadic existence prevents their presence, and they are seldom dwellers in the sheep-lands. If they are there, it is in a cabin home which serves as the shepherd's headquarters. More often the herder has a cabin of his own, around which the sheep graze during several weeks or months. It is a bachelor's home indeed, with the cooking utensils giving ample evidence of bachelor use. The winter quarters are usually a ranch dwelling and its surrounding buildings where the horses and sheep are sheltered after a fashion during the severe storms. Hay has been hauled during the summer to provide for periods of distress, and the little grain needed may be stored from year to year against need. Each season the industry is made more stable by means of business methods.

The tenderfoot looks at the brown, bare hills of the lower mountain ranges in midsummer and asks in astonishment, "What do the sheep find to eat up there?" And the agricultural botanist in the range replies, "Sir, those sheep are feeding on the most nutritious hay to be found in the American grazing region. They are feeding on poas, agropyrums, boutelouas, and other grasses sun-cured into hay, uncut, and in most excellent condition." Then the animals bite off the tender twigs of the quaking aspen, nibble at the sagebrush, and, indeed, find all is grist that comes to their mill. Most of these grasses do not form a continuous sod as do those of the East, hence the name "bunch-grass." The soil shows through; the landscape has a neutral tint; the traveler looks from the car window and misses the rich green of the Eastern pastures—but the nutriment is there.

The shepherd is a traveler. It is no uncommon thing for him to cover a thousand miles with a single flock. He starts sometimes on the far Pacific slope early in the spring, walking slowly as the sheep feed and taking in the highlands in midsummer. By autumn he has come down to the corn-lands of Nebraska and Kansas, and the sheep may be sold at good prices to the feeders, freight all saved. Of course in such a trip the helper is not needed, or rather two shepherds with double-sized flocks may assist each other. On the way they must obey the "two-mile limit" that obtains in some of the States. This is a statute providing that sheep may not graze within two miles of any inhabited dwelling. It is the settlers' protection, and gives a recourse when the wandering flock swoops upon the growing crops and leaves but barren waste. This has been fought bitterly by the sheepmen, but it stands the sole means of protection for the farmer. But for it the sheepmen would be kings, for nothing can withstand the ravages of a large and hungry flock of sheep.

Besides the danger from storms, sheep, like cattle, stampede, trampling one another underfoot when a fierce dog or a wolf causes consternation in the sheepfold. During the lambing season there must be a halt. One lamb is not much loss, but when hundreds are born daily the poor shepherd is kept at his post as guardian throughout the twenty-four hours to see that the wabbly little ones are safely cared for. On the big ranches lambing-vans are driven over the range to take them to the yards. Then there are poisonous grasses on the range which the shepherd must know. Last year a sheep-owner drove a fresh band on a new pasture, and in less than a week 3,500 were dead.

Along with every herder goes the real hero of the sheep-lands—the sharp-eared, nimble-footed, honest, faithful shepherd dog. Without him there would be sheep-

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raising on a large scale. He serves without wages, sometimes getting more cuffs and kicks than kind words, but he never falters or complains, and will work to the death. He rounds up the flock, brings in the wanderers, watches while the master is away, and, in short, shows almost human intelligence, and never knows how much the owner of vast numbers of woolly creatures over which he lords owes to him. The wonderful achievements of these meek but clever animals would make a chapter by itself.

When the flock has passed, the prairie is as if a fire had swept over the range. The sheep takes things clean as he goes. He bites the grass into the roots, he walks ever onward and follows his leader. The touch of his hoofs is fraught with an odor that gives offense to horses and cattle, and the keen clip of his teeth leaves nothing for the larger animals. He spares no green thing; he is insatiable.

With cattle it is different. They wander here and there, picking out the choice bits of grass but leaving much between. They may leave an odor, but the sheep is not offended thereby. The shrubs are untouched, and the pasture is left in part for the next comer. Herein lies the cause of conflict, the reason for the bitter warfare that the plains are now enduring.

The great secret of the fortunes made in the stock industry in the past few years has been free range. Over a vast territory, extending from the open plain of Texas up through Oklahoma, Kansas, eastern Colorado, Nebraska, and Wyoming to the States along the northern border, reached unending leagues of grass. Most of it even went to waste because there were none to take it. On this the herds and flocks fed, and there was plenty for all. But the settlers pushed farther into the west; Oklahoma added other areas of Indian land; irrigation took from the land at the base of the foothills—the stockman found that he was being limited in his free pasture. He tried to drive out the settler, but in vain; persecutions and the destruction of crops were met by laws like the "two-mile limit" statute, keeping the agriculturist safe. The sheepman went on with his flock and took the range as he came to it—the cattleman could not follow, for the cattle would not eat after the sheep. So the cowboys declared war on the shepherds, and sought to limit their range. To some extent this has been done; but the conflict is bitter, resulting in bloodshed and deeds of intolerable cruelty—nor is it yet ended. It is tempting for the sheepman to move to new pastures at the risk of attack, even though he knows that a cattleman has long been in possession and will fight to maintain his place; for it is well understood that the range is open to all.

A Western authority says that in the past ten years 600,000 sheep have been wantonly killed by cowboys, at a loss to the owners of $2,000,000. It is also estimated—no one can tell surely, for all the tragedies of the range do not come to light—that five hundred man-killings have annually accompanied the sheep-killings. Sometimes the settlers, whose homes are threatened, make common cause with the cattlemen and join in the slaughter. Only last July a band of masked men, mounted, killed the herders of several thousand sheep in central Wyoming and killed thousands of the sheep. In addition, 65,000 sheep, which were near by, were left without herders and were scattered on the hills, resulting in further loss. Riflemen surround flocks and kill every sheep, driving off the herders. A flock of 5,000 Angora goats was killed in western Colorado in August. The papers of Oregon describe the terrible devastation produced by dynamite thrown among the huddled bands of sheep, the explosion ending the existence of whole flocks, and sometimes killing the shepherds as well. The cattlemen throw these deadly explosives from some height, or charge on horseback into the frightened flocks for their scheme of wrath. Flocks have been driven into narrow cañons and clubbed to death; they have been hurried over precipices and destroyed. One man fought the battle for years, finally, after losing 14,000 sheep, giving up the range for which he contended.

The settler who "homesteads" a claim in the edge of the free range has one great terror—what if the flocks or herds should come! He knows that the crops so carefully tended would go, the garden would be made desolate. He has recourse through the law, to be sure, but in the wilder portion of the West it is sometimes a slow process.

Recently the Government has issued an

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order that the sheep must be kept off the forest reserves, the last refuge of the wandering flocks and their worried owners. These were the only lands on which the cattle were not generally grazed, so the sheep were turned in. But they destroyed the shrubbery in their efforts to gain sustenance, and so the order went out to stop such practice. There seemed to be no choice but to try conclusions with the cattlemen again, and hostilities opened with renewed vigor. The miners and campers and hunters try to keep stock out of the mountain parks, and the boundaries constantly grow less for the wanderings of the flocks and herds. The range is becoming thin, too. The grass is overpastured, and, in the opinion of expert stockmen, does not to-day give more than half the sustenance that it did a decade ago. Various plans are proposed to renew it, but they are as yet in embryo, and do not help the man with huge flocks of sheep that must be fed. In the end there must be a more extensive leasing or ownership of the grazing lands, and the rights of possession must be obeyed. Until that ttme comes the conflict for the free feeding-grounds will rage.

The growth of the sheep industry has directly followed the decline of prices in cattle. Time was when the owners of herds of cattle were all barons, when they obtained fancy prices for inferior stock. Then came the over-indulgence in cattle and the fall of prices. Next came the sheep, and the promoters who have made fortunes in the Northwest. Along in the latter '70's there was a sheep craze, and with the high prices for wool it was easy to figure one's self rich. The sheepmen had just well loaded up on stock when there came a sudden demoralization due to the low-tariff era, and the losses were immense. Animals that had sold for four dollars a head were a drug at one dollar. It took ten years for the business to get on its feet again.

Thirty-six years ago some Jesuit priests drove 450 sheep to their mission in western Montana—that was the beginning. Now Montana leads all States of the Nation in sheep, having over 6,000,000 head. The wool exchange of Great Falls this year handled 9,846,000 pounds of wool, and that at Billings, also in Montana, 9,108,000 pounds. Each boasted of being "the greatest initial wool market in the world." The average price paid was 15.54 and 13.42 cents respectively. The total wool clip of 1902 in Montana is estimated at 31,000,000 pounds. Wyoming with 5,100,000 head, New Mexico with 4,900,000 head, Oregon with 3,000,000 head, Idaho with 3,000,000 head, and Texas with 4,000,000 head, are the great sheep States. To be sure, Ohio boasts 4,100,000 head, but they are not on ranges; they are in small bunches on the farms. The Nation's total is 61,837,112. Of those in the range States the larger portion are feeding on the Government land, the owners possessing, if any, a small bit of ranch land along some watercourse as a headquarters. In later years this has become more necessary, and the available valleys are, between the demands of the cattlemen and those of the sheepmen, eagerly sought.

This is as manifest in the *arroya*-marked plains of the Southwest, where Mexicans follow the flocks, as in the pine-scented tablelands of the northern boundary. The free range is no more immeasurable. The owners of stock know almost to an acre upon what they can depend.

Along with the raising of sheep for wool and for sale as feeding material has come another great industry, that of fattening sheep and lambs for the market. On the alfalfa-laden plains of eastern Colorado, in Nebraska, Kansas, Missouri, and Iowa—the great feeding centers—millions of sheep are held for a time during the winter, to put them in condition for the market. They are fed the corn and "roughness" that are produced abundantly, and the work of making flesh rapidly is so systematized that the advance in weight is marvelous. There is no prettier sight on the Western plains than a sheep-yard filled with the white-wooled animals contentedly eating the grain placed so lavishly before them. Fortunes are made by the transformation of the corn into mutton. Especially during the past year has there been an increasing interest in the business, for the high price of beef has caused a stronger demand for other kinds of meat. The present winter will probably be the greatest sheep-feeding season known in the history of the West. While there are some risks to be undertaken in the management of large flocks

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and the fluctuations of the market are frequently very rapid, the end usually brings a profit to the feeder, since the sheep are careful to eat every possible portion of the material set before them.

The business of sheep-raising is likely to become yet more popular in the West, as it is one in which the whole family of the settler can take part. The children, boys or girls, are able to herd the gentle creatures if necessary, and the handling of them in the yards is a simple task—far different from that of the cattle herd, which requires strength and nerve. On the farm or the fenced ranch the sheep is cared for with a minimum of trouble, a situation that appeals to the average settler. As the claims grow smaller and as they are better cared for, there is a better opportunity for the small flock of sheep, and the time will come when, as in Ohio and New York, the farmer will look upon these producers of wool and mutton as indispensable to the carrying on of his business.

On the great ranges changes are certain to occur. The ranchmen will have to settle their trouble, or the Government will settle it for them by declaring that the range must not be used except under lease. This rule is already enforced as to the school lands of the States generally. Should it come, there will be great eagerness to obtain control of the open land, and the rights of lessees will furnish much litigation for the attorneys and courts of the West. The end is coming; every pitched battle in the intermountain States between cowboys and shepherds brings it nearer. It may not be long until the picturesque side of the sheep industry will pass away forever.

One Woman's Struggle

By H. W. B.

SOME experiences of life, though so truly awful, are so awfully true that they can bear repetition, and human nature is so prone to forget that the retelling of them is necessary if the sufferers are to be relieved. We have all heard much about the injustice done to the poor sewing-woman, and the sweat-shop that keeps her wages low has been openly condemned, but even now few consider how much suffering, temptation, and ill-requited toil go to make the garments purchased at bargain prices. If we did consider, we should consider it a crime to encourage such a system of extortion, and gladly pay the prices which would insure a living wage to the poor women who make them.

I give the experience of one woman in her own words. She had seen better days, but in reduced circumstances, untrained as she was to enter the ranks of breadwinners, she did what she could find to do. She says: "Being filled with the spirit of Yankee independence inherited from New England ancestry, I could not rest content to be entirely dependent. So, taking up one of the New York dailies, I turned to the column headed 'Help Wanted—Females.' Seeing an advertisement for workers on children's dresses I started for the manufacturer's address. I walked on and on (to save car-fares) until at last, footsore and weary, I reached my destination. Entering a doorway where women were issuing forth with parcels, I passed through a room filled with men who stared impudently at the women as they passed. In the workroom upstairs I was met by a young woman with the blandest of smiles, who showed me different styles of children's dresses. Out of this lot I selected one, for which she said they paid three dollars a dozen. It seemed a very small price, but I thought it would do for a beginning. I was given paper and string with which to wrap the dozen which I agreed to take home. As it was a physical impossibility for me to walk home, I took a car. I began my work with great zeal. I so organized my light housekeeping as to make it as light as possible, and gave most of my time to my dressmaking, working early and late, often till midnight. At the end of the week I triumphantly carried my parcel, much increased in bulk, to the manufacturer's. The agreeable young woman who had given me the work was nowhere to be seen, but in her place was a grim

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female of most unprepossessing appearance. After making me wait her pleasure for a long time, she came to me and curtly informed me that it was not pay-day. When pay-day arrived, I was on the spot bright and early. Edging my way through a room crowded with women, most of whom were poorly clad and half-starved-looking creatures, I waited my turn for an interview with the 'overlookers.' At last it came, and I was informed that the price paid for making such dresses was forty cents instead of three dollars a dozen! Too shocked and dazed to reply, I received my forty cents, and, feeling for my purse, found it had been stolen. Out of my forty cents I paid five cents for a ride home, where I sat down in dumb amazement and dismay to 'think on these things.' How could the good God permit such criminal injustice to be organized and carried on in this enlightened age and community!

"Next day, with faith in my fellow-beings reviving in my breast, I again looked over the advertisements. This time I found that a manufacturer of infants' dresses wanted feather-stitching done. That was one of my accomplishments, and I applied for the work. I was told that it was not given out, but that I must come every day and work from eight in the morning until half-past five in the evening. I was somewhat appalled at the prospect of stemming the tide of humanity that surged over the Brooklyn Bridge at those hours, but determined to try, since it was the only thing that offered. I started at seven o'clock the next morning for my long walk, taking my luncheon with me. With cheerful alacrity I took the seat assigned me among the group of feather-stitchers in one of the little stalls set apart for them. A sharp-featured, sharp-voiced Jewess, with diamonds on her fingers and in her ears, gave me my work. The 'power' was turned on, the hum of voices ceased, and the buzz of machinery began. After a trying morning, with endless faultfinding by the Jewess, twelve o'clock came and we were allowed half an hour for luncheon. Then began a scramble for places at a long table covered with white oilcloth. A ruder, coarser set of girls than those who gathered around it I never met. Still, I have no cause to complain of their treatment of me. Being civil to them, I received civility in return, except from the Jewess, who seemed to make it a point to treat me with marked discourtesy. She made me feel that she did not want me there. But I took no apparent notice of her insulting manner, and did not resent any of her endless but undeserved criticisms of my work. After two weeks of work there I received five and one-half dollars and my dismissal, on the plea that the work had given out. As I passed out with the crowd into the elevator I observed that the prettiest and most refined-looking of the girls had been detained by the proprietor to help him at his desk. One of her comrades, a plain but kind-hearted girl, was looking at her with a face full of anxiety, but the poor child dared not notice her. What it meant to her to be thus honored by this brutal man her more experienced comrade knew too well, I suppose.

"Again I tried the advertisements for workers. This time it was a shoe-factory. Slipper vamps and bows for shoes were given out to be embroidered and made up. It seemed a light, pretty sort of work to do. So I once more joined a throng of half-starved, wretched-looking women who stood eagerly looking for work and awaiting an opportunity to interview the forewoman, a sharp, hard, dark-eyed little woman, gaunt and round-shouldered from a life of hard work. At last my turn came. Without looking me in the face, she showed me, with a perfunctory, indifferent air, the different varieties of bows. Selecting a style for me to try, she informed me that they paid sixty cents for twelve dozen of this style. I was duly instructed by another woman how to do the work satisfactorily. She then gave me the materials to carry home, and I was liberated. I worked early and late, always till midnight, sometimes later, a friend often assisting me by running the ribbon through the buckles ready for use. It was impossible for me to finish twelve dozen in much less than a week. Consequently, after deducting my car-fares, I had left fifty cents for a week of hard work.

"A little later I was told of a place in New York where I could obtain steady employment in making infants' dresses, and that my work would be sent to me and called for. Once more I applied for work. I engaged to make a dozen little

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dresses, for which they said they paid sixty cents. The materials were sent to me, and my sewing-machine buzzed early and late. At the expiration of the week the dresses were called for. When I went for my money, the inspector told me that I took too much pains and basted too much. After deducting the price of the cotton, which I was expected to furnish, and my fares to engage the work and to receive my pay, I had just thirty-five cents left for my week's work—about three cents each for the dresses.

"Again I tried a factory, this time for the making of underwear for women and children. They offered the munificent sum of two cents a garment, twenty-five cents a dozen, for the making. They had no work at present, but would take my name and address and let me know when they had some. I declined to trouble them to do so, and went to my home in disgust and despair."

This pathetic story, which is only one of a multitude, makes its own special appeal to the women who rush after the cheapest ready-made garments. It appeals also to all women and all men, in all grades of social life; for all may do something to make these conditions impossible.

All the Russias[1]

By George Kennan

IN a tastefully printed and beautifully illustrated volume of nearly five hundred pages, Mr. Henry Norman has given to the world what he describes in his preface as "the outcome of fifteen years' interest in Russian affairs, culminating in four journeys—one of nearly twenty thousand miles—in European and Asiatic Russia." In the course of these journeys, he says, opportunities of seeing and investigating every matter that interested him were offered him, and assistance and sympathy were given that opened to him every official door in the Empire, from Finland to the Caucasus and from St. Petersburg to Vládivostók. A book based upon interest so long continued, travel so extensive, and opportunities for investigation so exceptional, ought certainly to be well worth the attention of every student of Russian affairs.

It is my purpose in this brief review to indicate the nature and scope of Mr. Norman's work, so that readers of The Outlook may know what is and what is not to be found in it; and then to make as trustworthy an estimate as I can of its value and importance as a contribution to the already great and steadily growing literature of the subject to which it relates.

The first impression that the book makes upon one is that of extreme readability. Its matter is well arranged; its style is clear, graphic, and forceful; its descriptions are not only accurate, but often striking or picturesque; and even in its discussions of subjects that are generally dry—such as questions of political economy and finance—it is always and invariably interesting. Readers of Mr. Norman's earlier books will doubtless regard this as nothing more than a fulfillment of their anticipations; but it is a great and conspicuous merit in a book of Russian travel, nevertheless.

Next to readability, the most noticeable feature of the volume is the extent of ground that it undertakes to cover. No contemporary writer, so far as I can remember, and certainly no traveler, has ever tried to put into the literary frame of a single volume a picture, or even an outline sketch, of European Russia, Finland, the Caucasus, Central Asia, and Siberia. It is a much greater undertaking than it would be to treat adequately in a single volume the United States, Alaska, Cuba, Porto Rico, the Philippines, and the Hawaiian Islands. Haxthausen devoted one volume to the Caucasus alone; Schuyler made two volumes out of Central Asia; Lansdell found in Siberia material enough for two volumes; and Leroy-Beaulieu's careful study of Russia, Russian institutions, and the Russian people filled three large octavo volumes, and then left almost untouched the Asiatic part of the vast, complex, and heterogeneous Empire.

[1] *All the Russias.* By Henry Norman, M. P. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

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If Leroy-Beaulieu, Haxthausen, Schuyler, and Lansdell could not give their readers an adequate knowledge of European Russia, the Caucasus, Central Asia, and Siberia in less than eight octavo volumes, there would seem to be some antecedent probability that a survey of "All the Russias" in a single volume must deal very briefly or very superficially with a large part of the facts. A glance at the chapter index is sufficient to show that such is the case, and that the part of the Empire most neglected is European Russia. Two hundred and forty-five pages of the book are devoted to the Caucasus, Central Asia, and Siberia; sixty-one pages to Russia's relations with and attitude toward the other European Powers; thirty-two pages to Finland; seventeen pages to Count Tolstoï; and eight pages to general conclusions. There are left for European Russia only ninety-three pages, and nearly half of this very limited space is given up to the policy of M. de Witte, the Russian Minister of Finance, and the results of that policy as they seem to the author to have worked out in practice. It is hardly necessary to say—much less to show—that in ninety-three pages the ablest and best-informed writer in the world could not hope to treat otherwise than briefly and superficially the multitudinous facts and multifarious aspects of government and life in such a country as European Russia. All that he could possibly do would be to select and set forth the facts and phenomena that were most interesting and significant, or that had the most important bearing on the prosperity of the State and the welfare of its citizens. This, it seems to me, Mr. Norman has failed to do; and to this extent he has fallen short of his aim. His object in visiting Russia was, as he says, "not to redescribe well-known sights and places, but to seek, in both familiar and unfamiliar scenes, the underlying facts, motives, and meanings which go to make the Russia of to-day, and from which the Russia of to-morrow may be inferred" (p. 28). How far he falls short of the complete attainment of this object may be shown by a few typical and characteristic illustrations.

Among the "underlying facts which go to make the Russia of to-day" is, unquestionably, the illiteracy of seventy or eighty per cent. of its peasant population. Mr. Norman notes the evil, but seems to take no interest in the remedy. He admits that "poverty and illiteracy go hand in hand," that the rural population of Russia seems to be more crushed, ignorant, and poverty-stricken than the rural population of any other country in the world; and that the "millions of people who read no books and no newspapers, and write and receive no letters, must inevitably be the victims of superstition and prejudice;" but he does not seem to think that this almost universal ignorance has any noteworthy bearing upon "the Russia of to-morrow." If the future destiny of Russia be dependent upon any one single condition, I should say that it depends, unquestionably, upon the amount of education given to, or withheld from, the great mass of its people; and yet Mr. Norman dismisses the whole subject of Russian popular education with two lines of text and one line in a foot-note.

The power, influence, and limitations of the periodical press would seem to me to have some bearing upon "the Russia of to-morrow," as they certainly have upon "the Russia of to-day;" but of the press and the censorship he tells us nothing. The public health is a matter of great present and future importance in a country where—as Mr. Norman admits—"disease is rife," but he gives to it only five lines. The frequently recurring famines in Russia, with their sequelæ in the shape of scurvy and "hunger-typhus," sweep away tens of thousands of peasants every two or three years, add many millions to the arrears of taxes, and cost the Government millions more for relief; but no information is given us with regard either to the causes of such famines or to the measures that have been or might be taken to put an end to them.

The peasants of Russia, as a class, "are impoverished and degraded by drink," Mr. Norman says, "to an extent not found in any class of any other country;" but he does not describe the practical working of the Government monopoly of the liquor traffic, nor the influence of the recently established Government temperance bureaus, nor the work of private temperance societies. The liberals and reformers of Russia impress me, and have impressed other observers, as a class of men who not only are deserving of the highest respect

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and admiration, but are destined to play an important part in "the Russia of to-morrow;" but Mr. Norman gives them only three-quarters of a page, and says, rather contemptuously, that "the vast majority" of them "are dreamers."

The serious agrarian disorders and manifestations of popular suffering and discontent in various parts of the Empire which have recently caused great anxiety to the Government, and have repeatedly attracted the attention of the world, are passed over without comment. The work of the district and provincial assemblies—the only representative bodies in the Empire—is a noteworthy feature of "the Russia of to-day," and furnishes material for not a few inferences with regard to "the Russia of to-morrow;" but there is nothing in Mr. Norman's book even to indicate that Russia has representative assemblies.

I might extend almost indefinitely the list of subjects wholly omitted or inadequately treated in the chapters of the book that relate to European Russia; but it will suffice, perhaps, if I brief the most important of them as follows, indicating quantitatively the space that Mr. Norman has given to each:

Primary education, 0; universities, 0; technical schools, 0; public libraries, 0; education in general, 3 lines; newspapers and magazines, 0; books and literature, 0; press censorship, 0; work of district and provincial assemblies, 0; status and influence of peasant communes, 0; manifestations of popular discontent, 0; public health, 5 lines; temperance organizations and work, 0; famines and their causes, 9 lines; liberals and reformers, ¾ of a page; courts and the administration of justice, 0.

It may be possible for an extraordinarily clairvoyant observer to disregard almost wholly the existing state of agriculture, education, public health, the food supply, popular discontent, reform movements, the temperance question, public libraries, the press, local self-government, courts and the administration of justice, and still draw trustworthy conclusions with regard to the Russia of the future; but I doubt it very much. The future of a country—even of a despotically governed country—depends largely upon its people; and a forecast of national destiny that ignores the nation, or regards it as a mere instrument in the hands of a ruler, has little present value and is not at all likely to meet with historical fulfillment.

From my point of view, the title of Mr. Norman's book would be more accurately descriptive of its contents if it were changed to "The Russia of the Tchinovniks," or "All the Russias Except the Russia of the People." I do not say this disrespectfully, or in a spirit of captious and ill-natured criticism. The Russia of the Tsar, the army, and the bureaucracy is a powerful, an imposing, and a wonderful Russia; but—to use a bit of modern slang—"it is not the whole thing." The people count for something, and to the people Mr. Norman has given only nine pages out of four hundred and fifty-six. He says in his preface that he "was afforded opportunities of seeing and investigating every matter that interested him;" but his interest does not seem to have extended to popular troubles, hopes, aims, feelings, and activities, nor to have led him to study the things that really affect the life, happiness, and destiny of more than ninety millions of people. If, in any part of European Russia, he entered the door of a school, a university, a newspaper or magazine office, a court of justice, a public library, a temperance bureau, a "People's House," or the assembly chamber of a *zemstvo*, he has failed, I think, to record the fact. I do not throw this up to him as a reproach, nor point it out as an evidence of superficial investigation; because every traveler has a perfect right to exercise his own judgment as to the comparative interest of different kinds or classes of facts, and is fully justified in selecting and presenting such as seem to him most striking and important. My only object is to indicate the nature of Mr. Norman's self-imposed limitations, and to show that his Russia is not the Russia of the people, but the Russia of the Tsar, the Tsar's army, and the Tsar's bureaucracy. With regard to this particular Russia he has given us a mass of interesting and valuable information which shows that the "official doors" of the Empire were not opened to him in vain, and that the "assistance" and "sympathy" of M. de Witte, the Russian Minister of Finance, were not injudiciously given.

The account of M. de Witte's career and achievements, including "educational protection," the adoption of the gold standard, the resumption of specie payments, and

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the Governmental monopoly of the liquor traffic, is interesting and instructive, and, in the main, accurate. M. de Witte, however, should have informed Mr. Norman, and the latter should have made a note of the fact, that the resumption of specie payments in Russia was brought about, not by raising the paper ruble to the level of the gold ruble, but by scaling the gold down to the level of the depreciated paper. A new set of gold coins was minted, and into each of these coins was put only the quantity of gold that the depreciated note of the same denomination would exchange for in the open market. Since that time Russia has had two different kinds of gold coins; one of them intrinsically worth its nominal face value, and the other intrinsically worth only the amount of gold that the depreciated paper note of the same denomination would have bought at the time when specie payments were resumed. Coins of the earlier series, therefore, if they were in circulation, would be at a premium precisely equivalent to the original difference in value between gold and depreciated paper.

While Mr. Norman was discussing Russian finances and the wild speculation in Russian paper rubles on the Berlin Stock Exchange, he might appropriately have said a word or two about the recent wild speculation on the Russian stock exchanges in Russian government bonds that are floated with—if not by means of—a lottery attachment.

In the chapter entitled "Finance, Commerce, and Industry" Mr. Norman has made a very favorable presentation of Russia's economic situation, and criticises Mr. Cooke, British Commercial Agent in Russia, for taking a more pessimistic view of it. Mr. Norman's statements may be fully justified by the facts; but Mr. Cooke's opinions and conclusions had the support of all the Russian political economists whom I met in St. Petersburg last year, and the Russian periodical press shows conclusively, despite the censorship, that M. de Witte's policy in forcing the development of manufactures by means of a high protective tariff, and at the expense of the poverty-stricken agricultural class, is far from being generally approved.

The chapters of Mr. Norman's book that deal with Finland and the Finns are much fuller and more satisfactory in scope —proportionately—than those that deal with European Russia and the Russians. Indeed, I do not know where one could find, in an equal number of pages, a better description of the country and the people. It is a matter for regret, however, that the author should have made an attempt to defend—or at least excuse—the course of the Russian Government in violating all its pledges to the Finns, depriving them of their constitution, their system of local self-government, their right of public assembly, and even their right of petition, and virtually annihilating their periodical press. Mr. Norman's view seems to be that Russia would be acting within the limits of strict "formal legality" if, without a shadow of pretext, she should move an army of two hundred thousand men into Sweden and forcibly annex that peaceable and friendly country, "lock, stock, and barrel." Consequently, she has dealt very leniently, if not generously, with the Finns in keeping any of her promises to them and leaving them any rights at all; because the Finns, "lock, stock, and barrel," are her own property. It seems to me that the word "legality" has no rightful or possible application to such courses of national procedure.

The most interesting and valuable part of "All the Russias" seems to me to be that relating to Russian Asia, and particularly the region lying beyond the Caspian. The chapters devoted to Russia's expansion and administration in Central Asia, her probable absorption of Persia, her determination to secure an outlet on the Persian Gulf, her attitude toward China and India, and the results of her railway-building in Central Asia and Siberia, are all full of instruction, and show evidences not only of careful and accurate observation, but of research, reflection, and a wide knowledge of world politics gained by travel in many fields. The generally beneficent nature of Russia's rule in Asia is beyond all question; and I fully agree with Mr. Norman in thinking that she "has carried out a great task there, and, on the whole, most worthily. Not only must the greatness of her conquest evoke our admiration, but the qualities of the civilization she has afterwards imposed, the peace, the commerce, the comparative happiness and well-being of the people, should also win our sincere respect."

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With regard to Mr. Norman's discussion of Russia's foreign relations I am not qualified to speak with any fullness of knowledge or weight of authority; but it may be proper for me, nevertheless, to call attention to the obvious—and indeed admitted—fact that, as an Englishman and a member of Parliament, he favors and advocates a *rapprochement* with Russia, and a friendly understanding, if not an agreement, between Great Britain and Russia with regard to possessions and spheres of influence in southern Asia. The desire to bring this about, taken in connection with the favorable impression evidently made upon him by Russian officials, seems to have biased somewhat his judgment of Russian methods and policies, influenced a little his selection of facts and topics for investigation, and given a tinge of pro-Russian color to his work as a whole. Due allowance, however, may be made for this, without calling into question for a moment his perfect frankness, fairness, and intellectual honesty in dealing with his subject.

In his final chapter Mr. Norman sums up his conclusions with regard to the future of Russia as follows: "Russia is going ahead; . . . and the twentieth century must count her as one of its greatest factors in the movement and development of human society." With this prediction I am in full accord; but I might possibly differ with its author as to the relative importance of the parts that will be played in the twentieth century by the Russia of the Tsars and the Russia of the People.

Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

Adam Rush. By Lynn Roby Meekins. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5×8 in. 352 pages. $1.50.

The atmosphere of this story is Southern, although it is not definitely located. It deals mainly with the fortunes of one family, especially its junior member. Incidentally are brought in the local characters with whom he comes in contact. Fierce pride, blind prejudice, provincial cunning, all play their respective parts. A country shopkeeper furnishes most of the humor, and an entertaining specimen he is in his way. There is, of course, a love story, and it ends as it should.

American Merchant Ships and Sailors. By Willis J. Abbot. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 5¼×8¼ in. 372 pages. $2, net.

Last week we chronicled the appearance of Mr. Marvin's notable book on "The American Merchant Marine," and this week we have to chronicle the appearance of an equally interesting work by the author of the "Naval History of the United States" and "Blue-Jackets of 1898." In his earlier books he has already told the story of our naval achievements from the day of Paul Jones to that of George Dewey. In his latest book Mr. Abbot describes the daily life of the whaler, trader, and ocean liner, the life of those who are extending the markets of the world, bringing nations together, and, in the words of our author, cementing the world into one great interdependent whole. We are glad to note the prominence given to New England's lead on the ocean and to the multiplication of American ship-yards. The change in marine architecture brought about such a depopulation of the ocean that those who could not face the transition from wood to steel necessarily suffered most. The American merchant marine, however, is not now without certain signs of revival; indeed, the present moment seems to show that we may be entering upon the tide of successful re-establishment. While arguments for and against subsidies, and for and against the policy of committing Americans to buy ships of foreign builders, are being considered, natural causes are taking us again to our rightful position on the sea. Mr. Abbot details present conditions with a grateful illumination. Other strong features of the volume are the author's treatment of the slave trade, the whaling industry, the privateers, the Arctic expeditions, the New England fisheries; above all, of the Great Lakes' share in our maritime traffic. The book is admirably printed, and the illustrations genuinely illustrate the always graphic and forceful text.

American Municipal Progress. By Charles Zueblin. (The Citizen's Library.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 380 pages. $1.25, net.

A volume which could have been written only by a man who has traveled widely and come to know intimately the work of social reformers along every line. Wherever a municipal ideal has been incorporated in an institution, Professor Zeublin has been alert to see the significance of the event and to study its practical workings. The book gets better as it advances, and is full of suggestions of the most practical type regarding methods of municipal betterment in sanitation, education, recreation, and nearly every phase of communal activity.

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Anglican Episcopate and the American Colonies (The). By Arthur Lyon Cross, Ph.D. (Harvard Historical Studies, Vol. IX.) Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 6×9 in. 368 pages. $2.50.

From the earliest period of our colonial history till near the outbreak of the war for independence continued efforts were made on this side of the Atlantic to obtain from the English Church the appointment of American bishops. Yet these efforts obtained little countenance in England, except from the Bishop of London, to whose jurisdiction colonial Episcopalians were subject, and the Archbishop of Canterbury; from these, indeed, only intermittently. Meanwhile, colonial candidates for holy orders had to cross the sea for ordination. A chapter has been devoted to the subject in Mr. Cobb's valuable work on "The Rise of Religious Liberty in America," which goes, perhaps, further into the causes of this remarkable fact than the present volume goes. But in this the history of the relations between the Anglican Episcopate and its cis-Atlantic province is for the first time set forth in desirable fullness, and enriched by a copious appendix of historical documents illustrative thereof. In its original and briefer form this monograph was accepted as a dissertation for the Harvard doctorate of philosophy, and in 1899 received the award of the Toppan Prize. It is, of course, based on first-hand studies of the relevant documents, and is unquestionably a valuable contribution to the early history of organized Christianity in this country.

Barbara Ladd. By Charles G. D. Roberts. Illustrated. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 377 pages. $1.50.

"Barbara Ladd," Mr. Roberts's latest story, takes its readers out of the Canadian environment to New England, and later to New York, and follows the fortunes of a young girl in the troubled years at the outbreak of the American Revolution. The story relates itself more closely and definitely to what may be called non-pastoral conditions than anything which Mr. Roberts has hitherto written, but it is full of descriptions of scenery and of landscape which are refreshing by reason of the freshness of feeling with which they are transcribed, and are not too much emphasized, as sometimes happens in novels in which the nature element plays a prominent part. Among other good purposes which the story will serve will be to make some people comprehend a little better the position of many of the Tories at the outbreak of the Revolution. Mr. Roberts's sensitive imagination and delicate touch give this latest story the air of refinement and idyllic charm which characterize "The Heart of the Ancient Wood" and "A Sister to Evangeline."

Billy Whiskers: The Autobiography of a Goat. By Frances Trego Montgomery. Illustrated. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, O. 8×9½ in. 159 pages. $1.

Boy (The): How to Help Him Succeed. By Nathaniel C. Fowler, Jr. The Oakwood Publishing Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 320 pages. $1.25.

The theme is a commanding one; the first half of the book discusses it in excellent platitudes which may be helpful in a general way to those who have in hand the training of the young. The last half is given over to a symposium in which a large number of successful men name the quality or circumstance to which they attribute their success in life and give their opinion as to the right way for bringing up a boy.

Blue Flower (The). By Henry van Dyke. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×8 in. 299 pages. $1.50.

Reserved for later notice.

Camps and Firesides of the Revolution. By Albert Bushnell Hart and Mabel Hill. Illustrated. (Source Readers of American History, No 2.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×7½ in. 309 pages. 60c.

The second volume of that admirable series for young students, "Source Readers in American History," is, like its predecessor, the result of judicious excision and modernization. It is fortunate that so little of this kind of readaptation has been necessary, for the contemporary records of the actual deeds, experiences, and life of our ancestors were in themselves romantically interesting enough to give a certain crystallization to the language in which they were told. The work will serve both as a reader for the young and as an aid in historical study. The chapters are arranged chronologically, as they should be, and the reading matter seems to grow in interest as we turn the pages.

Cardinal Virtues (The). By William De Witt Hyde. (What is Worth While Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 31 pages. 28c., net. (Postage, 4c.)

Caxton Club (The). By Amos R. Wells. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5¼×7¾ in. 105 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

Cecilia. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 421 pages.

Reserved for later notice.

Captured Santa Claus (A). By Thomas Nelson Page. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7¾ in. 75c.

Century of Jewish Missions (A). By A. E. Thompson. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 286 pages. $1, net.

This volume supplies much information on a subject where comparatively little has been in hand and much less has been diffused. Christian missions among Jews, as is here shown, have been more fruitful in other countries than in ours, where feeble interest in them has been taken, and even that has failed in case after case. To revive that interest is the writer's object. His standpoint is that of a literal interpreter of the Scriptures bearing upon the future of the Jews, and he suspects Reformed Judaism as but another name for unbelief in divine revelation. An account of the various sections and sects of Jews, Jewish views of Christ, Zionism, and Jewish progress, introduces the general subject of the missions carried on in all continents among this remarkable people.

Chatterbox for 1902. Edited by J. Erskine Clarke, M.A. Illustrated. Dana Estes & Co., Boston. 7×9½ in. 412 pages. 90c., net. (Postage 18c.)

A volume of tales selected and compiled for children, mainly wonder tales and adventure, with now and then a pithy anecdote.

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Charles Killbuck. By Francis C. Huebner. Illustrated. The Herbert Publishing Co., Washington, D. C. 5×7¾ in. 315 pages.

Child and the Tree (The). By Bessie Kenyon Ulrich. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 115 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

Child's Story of the Life of Christ (A). By Helen Brown Hoyt. Illustrated. The W. A. Wilde Co., Boston. 6×8 in. 233 pages. $1.25.

The narrative is told much as it would be recounted from memory by a mother to her children. The diction is simple, of course, but in good taste.

Colonel Alexander K. McClure's Recollections of Half a Century. The Salem Press Co., Salem, Mass. 6×9 in. 502 pages.

The reminiscences of a veteran journalist who has known personally every President from Fillmore down, and who has pleasant anecdotes to tell about nearly every one prominent in our political history since the formation of the Republican party. Though by no means a brilliant book, it is always interesting, and throws many novel side-lights upon the careers of our political leaders. What Colonel McClure says about the defeat of Seward for the Presidential nomination in 1860, by reason of his advocacy of the Roman Catholic demand for a division of the school fund of New York, is an illustration of this feature of the work.

Colonial Wooing (A). By Charles Conrad Abbott, M.D. J. B. Lippincott Co., New York. 4½×7¼ in. 241 pages.

Coquo and the King's Children. By Cornelia Baker. Illustrated. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. 6½×8 in. 249 pages.

Tales of enchantment pure and simple, in which imaginative children may lose themselves and sup on wonder to their hearts' content. The moral, of course, as in all such tales, is intended to be good, despite the impossible.

Cranford. By Mrs. Gaskell. Illustrated by Hugh Thomson. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4½×7 in. 297 pages. 80c.

Mr. Thomson's drawings are now almost a part of "Cranford" itself; no edition is good that has them not. Of the charm and delicate delight of the book itself it would be more than superfluous to speak.

Daily Maxims from Amiel's Journal. Edited by Orline Gates. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. (What is Worth While Series.) 5×7¼ in. 50 pages. 28c., net. (Postage, 4c.)

Daisies and Diggleses. By Evelyn Raymond. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5½×7¾ in. 131 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

Disciple of Plato (A). By Alligood Beach. Illustrated by John Ward Dunsmore. The Roberts Publishing Co., Boston. 5¼×8 in. 353 pages.

The author apes the vices usually ascribed to the French novel, and fails signally to appropriate those virtues of Gallic style which to some extent redeem Gallic realism and eroticism from cheap vulgarity. To discuss the book further, even to condemn it, would be to dignify it with notice it does not deserve on literary, artistic, or moral grounds.

Doctor Robin. By Harriet A. Cheever. Illustrated. Dana Estes & Co., Boston. 5×7¼ in. 100 pages. 40c. (Postage, 6c.)

"Erb." By W. Pett-Ridge. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 4½×7 in. 294 pages. 50c.

A decidedly humorous English story. "Erb" is a cockney labor agitator, a good fellow, a little inflated with his rhetorical fluency, but sensible, hard-headed, and honest. The author follows Dickens's literary methods in some particulars, but without slavish imitation. He gives us the chaff and bounce of the London workingman most amusingly, and the story has some good lessons in it, not obtrusively put.

Essays Historical and Literary. By John Fiske. In 2 vols. The Macmillan Co., New York. 6×9 in. $8, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Essays of Richard Steele. Selected and Edited by L. E. Steele. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4¼×6½ in. 358 pages. $1.

Francesca da Rimini. By Gabriele d'Annunzio. Translated by Arthur Symons. The Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York. 5×7 in. 223 pages. $1, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Francezka. By Molly Elliot Seawell. Illustrated by Harrison Fisher. The Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis. 5×7¾ in. 466 pages.

Maurice, Count of Saxe and Grand Marshal of France, Voltaire, and Adrienne Lecouvreur figure in this romance of France in the first half of the eighteenth century. Maurice is a great soldier and the idol of the ladies, and Francezka's lover, Gaston, is a handsome and gallant youth, but the real hero of the tale is the Count's secretary and captain of bodyguard, Babache, who says of himself, "God could have made an uglier man than I am because he is omnipotent, but I am sure he never did." He likes not Voltaire, and avers, "Writing is no great accomplishment; still less important is spelling." Of a certain conversation he remarks that the talk began to be "about the most trifling things on earth—Monsieur Voltaire, for instance." The story has a quaint flavor and a pretty wit worthy of the author of "Lady Betty Stair." It needs both, for the main situation is revolting as well as improbable.

Girls of the Forest. By L. T. Meade. Illustrated by Percy Tarrant. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 404 pages. $1.50.

What a book might be written to such a title! The reader who hopes to find in this volume children wise about woodland things and babbling of squirrels, birds, butterflies, and wild flowers, will be disappointed. The "Girls of the Forest" might live anywhere. In conversation they are unreal, though not entirely so in conduct. It is a story of English life. Young people and those who have their government in hand will find some instruction and entertainment in it—though not of the kind the name might imply.

Golliwoggs' Air-Ship (The). Illustrated by Florence K. Upton. Verses by Bertha Upton. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 11×8½ in. 64 pages. $1.50, net.

Harmonic Analysis. By Benjamin Cutter. The Oliver Ditson Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 130 pages.

Designed for the use of those who, having a knowledge of harmony, wish to make it useful not only for composition, but also for the

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intelligent performance, memorization, or enjoyment of music. The spirit of the author, an instructor in the New England Conservatory of Music, is catholic.

Heidi. By Johanna Spyri. Translated by Helene S. White. (Children's Favorite Classics.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 4¼×6¾ in. 338 pages. 60c.

History of the American People (A). By Woodrow Wilson, Ph.D., Litt.D., LL.D. Illustrated. In 5 vols. Harper & Bros., New York. 6×9 in. $17.50, net.

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Housewives of Edenrise (The). By Florence Popham. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 285 pages. $1.50.

A tale of English domestic life, told mainly through parlor conversations and other meetings in which women figure. Chat, gossip, trifles, load its pages, but the trifles are such as make up average daily life, the interest evinced in them is very lifelike, and all are smartly handled. The play and interplay of feminine interests are skillfully done, clever little aphorisms are sprinkled about, and a vein of covert irony underlies all. It is a book with which to pass away a couple of hours agreeably when the reader is in right mood.

How the Twins Captured a Hessian. By James Otis. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5¼×7¾ in. 102 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

How to Make Rugs. By Candace Wheeler. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 130 pages. $1, net.

If I Were a College Student. By Charles F. Thwing, LL.D. (What is Worth While Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 30 pages. 28c., net. (Postage, 4c.)

Immensee. By Theodor Storm. Translated by Bertha M. Schimmelfennig. (What is Worth While Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 46 pages. 28c., net. (Postage, 4c.)

In a Car of Gold. By P. L. Gray. Illustrated. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, O. 5×7½ in. 156 pages. $1.

Inevitable (The). By Philip Verrill Mighels. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 361 pages. $1.50.

Although this tale is cast in the mold of mere romance and upheld by a somewhat melodramatic style, its theme carries with it the tragic seriousness inseparable from the story of a man who discovers that he has a drop of African blood in his veins, and because of this dares not marry the woman he loves, and who loves him well enough to forego all for his sake. The boy suffers much because of his dark skin, but is consoled by the belief that it is Indian blood he inherits. His crushing discovery comes after he has developed into a musical genius and has the world to do him homage.

In the Shadow of the Purple. By George Gilbert. R. F. Fenno & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 398 pages. $1.50.

Introduction à la Lengua Castellana. By H. Marion and P. J. Des Garennes. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 5×7¼ in. 149 pages.

Insurance and Crime. By Alexander Colin Campbell. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 6×9 in. 408 pages. $2.50, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Jethro Bacon of Sandwich. The Weaker Sex. By F. J. Stimson. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7¾ in. 222 pages. $1.

So hard and ungracious is the life of the degenerate, godless New England village described in the first of these stories that one thinks of "The House with the Green Shutters" as the only parallel. Nor is the second tale by any means a pleasant one.

Kiss of Glory (The). By Grace Duffie Boylan. Illustrated. G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 298 pages. $1.50.

Lassie and Laddie. By Mary D. Brine. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 241 pages. $1, net.

Life, the Interpreter. By Phyllis Bottome. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 299 pages. $1.50.

A love story into which is woven a good deal of the small complications of English social life. There is a love tangle which enmeshes three women. A large amount of sentiment pervades the pages, yet it is not a badly written tale.

Little Masterpieces of Science: Mind. Explorers. The Naturalist. Skies and Earth. Health and Healing. Invention and Discovery. Edited by George Iles. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 4×6 in.

The papers comprised in these small volumes have been brought together from various publications in which they first appeared, and are grouped under the following titles of the several volumes: "The Naturalist as Interpreter and Seer," "Health and Healing," "Invention and Discovery," "Explorers," "The Skies and the Earth," "Mind." The contents of each volume comprise a considerable variety of topics, and the names of the contributors carry authority on the subjects of which they treat. It was a happy thought of the publishers to collect in this convenient and attractive form so many contributions to popular science.

Little Mistress Good Hope and Other Fairy Tales. By Mary Imlay Taylor. Illustrated. A. C McClurg & Co., Chicago. 5½×7½ in. 186 pages.

These tales, some of which are woven about local legendary individuals who may have had a real existence, are engagingly told. The sort of wonder element which captivates young readers is well sustained.

Little White Bird (The); or, Adventures in Kensington Gardens. By J. M. Barrie. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7¾ in. 349 pages $1.50.

Reserved for later notice.

Lovable Tales of Janey and Josey and Joe (The). By Gertrude Smith. Illustrated. 6¾×8½ in. 158 pages. $1.30, net.

Mariella of Out West. By Ella Higginson The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 435 pages $1.50.

This story of life near Puget Sound is notable for its direct realism and strong presentation of character. The women in the book are much better drawn than the men, and the pictures of homely life and scenes of domestic, every-day happenings among the hard-working farmers are far more true and interesting than the attempts to present manners and society among the prosperous. The dialogue is crisp and keen, the wit infectious, and the satire often biting. Altogether the story is one to attract

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the attention even of the jaded novel-reader, not for its plot, which is of little value, nor for its rather vague dealings with theological and moral problems, but because its characters are thoroughly alive.

Ministry of the Sunday-School (The). By T. Harwood Pattison. The American Baptist Publication Society, Philadelphia. 5×8 in. 264 pages.

Professor Pattison has expanded into this volume his lectures at Regent's Park College, London, and the Hartford Theological Seminary, on the relation of Christian ministers to children and Sunday-schools. This is exhibited on the historical background of ancient theological, unbiblical views, and the incoming of the Sunday-school era to correct them. Professor Pattison believes in conversion by nurture as preferable to conversion by rupture. He holds an essential trait of every true pastor to be a lively interest in the children of his charge. He believes that the children have done as much for the church as the church has done for the children. He sees more to do, and outlines the advance of progress yet to be made. As in all his writings, there is a happy spicing of wisdom with wit. This is a desirable book on a subject hitherto not adequately attended to.

Molly. By Barbara Yechton. (The Golden Hour Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 5¼×7¾ in. 120 pages. 50c., net. (Postage, 8c.)

New International Encyclopædia (The). Edited by Daniel Coit Gilman, LL.D., Harry Thurston Peck, Ph.D., L.H.D., Frank Moore Colby, M.A. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. Vols. I., II., III. 7×10¼ in.

Reserved for later notice.

New Testament Revised (The): American Standard Edition. Thomas Nelson & Sons, New York. 3½×4½ in. 516 pages. $1.

On the Cross: A Romance of the Passion Play at Oberammergau. By Wilhelmine von Hillern and Mary J. Safford. Illustrated. Drexel Biddle, Philadelphia. 5×7½ in. 442 pages. $1.50.

Pascal and the Port Royalists. By William Clark, D.D., LL.D., D.C.L., F.R.S.C. (The World's Epoch-Makers.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 235 pages. $1.25.

A work in which, as in this, the subject chiefly speaks for himself is sufficiently attractive. Pascal, a Roman Catholic, yet no less dear to Protestants, dying at the age of thirty-nine, yet leaving in his writings the imperishable influence of a philosopher and a saint, is greater than his works. It is enough to say of this volume, Here is Pascal.

Patience, or Bunthorne's Bride. By W. S. Gilbert. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 92 pages. $1, net.

Pictures of Paint-Box Town. By Douglas Zabriskie Doty. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 12×9 in. 39 pages. $1, net.

Plea for Hardy Plants (A). By J. Wilkinson Elliott. (Reprint.) Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 8×10½ in. 76 pages. $1.60.

This book is compiled largely from the transactions of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society, with plans, facts, and illustrations contributed by Horace McFarland, Olmstead, the famous landscape gardener, and others. A vast number of hints as well as much tried information concerning the growth of hardy plants will be found within its pages.

Princess Kallisto and Other Tales of the Fairies (The). By William Dana Orcutt. Illustrated. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 9×10½ in. 137 pages. $2, net.

Old stories have been gathered, recast in part, and put into a fresh dress of diction by this author. The morals are sound and will appeal to the child mind. The illustrations will charm by their simple appeal.

Psychological Elements of Religious Faith (The). Lectures by Charles Carroll Everett, D.D., LL.D. Edited by Edward Hale. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 215 pages. $1.25, net.

These lectures, which the late Dr. Everett himself apparently never wrote out, are edited and printed from notes taken by students in the class-room. They are therefore somewhat condensed, but show little evidence of the process by which they have been given their present form. The editing has been done skillfully. In general the method of the lectures consists in building up a definition of religion by tracing its characteristics in the various forms which it has taken as shown in the actual religious experiences of men. Though the spirit of the book is academic, as it should be, the many allusions to literature and to practical experiences make it readable. We here give the definition which Dr. Everett finally reaches: Religion is a feeling toward a supernatural [spiritual] presence manifesting itself in truth, goodness, and beauty. There is much that is suggestive in this small volume, both in its incidental qualities and its final conclusion.

Queen of Little Barrymore Street (The). By Gertrude Smith. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 223 pages. 75c., net.

Miss Smith tells child stories that have won place and notice because of the very excess of childish simplicity which they express. The present story is intended for girls well removed from babyhood, and turns upon family misfortunes proving a blessing. The quality of the story is, however, lively.

Recollections of a Player. By J. H. Stoddart. Illustrated. The Century Co., New York. 5×8¼ in. 255 pages. $1.80, net. (Postage, 13c.)

Mr. Stoddart is not only a veteran actor (the oldest, we believe, now holding the stage), but he is a man of strong personal attractiveness, one who makes friends both before and behind the curtain. Like that other veteran of the stage, Mrs. Gilbert, Mr. Stoddart, in an unassuming way, has exercised a healthful and brightening influence on the theater. We cannot say that his volume of reminiscences is quite as good reading as was Mrs. Gilbert's recently published book, but it is a cheerful record of a half-century of busy theatrical life, has many anecdotes of old-time managers and actors, and gives constant proof of having been written by a man of gentle instincts and of high ideals.

Red House (The). By E. Nesbit. Illustrated. Harper & Bros., New York. 4¾×7½ in. 274 pages. $1.50.

This book is good for the blues. It is about a newly married pair. He writes for the magazines. She illustrates. From their diminutive establishment, the "Bandbox," they move to the "Red House," received in a legacy. It

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has hawthorn hedges, and an old garden with a sun-dial in it, and roses and jasmines and lilacs and all sorts of sweet-scented things running riot. They have little money, much trouble with servants, and great joy in doing housework themselves. Dust-pans, scrubbing-brushes, and brooms are their delights. There is a nice ghost. In fact, they have everything they could wish for in a country house. At last they find an old-fashioned cradle in it.

Retrospect and Prospect: Studies in International Relations, Naval and Political. By A. T. Mahan, D.C.L., LL.D. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 309 pages. $1.50, net.

Reserved for later notice.

Roger Drake, Captain of Industry. By Henry K. Webster. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 306 pages. $1.25.

That the clash of fierce passions and even the touch of romance are to be found in modern industrial struggles, and that they may be utilized with good effect in fiction, is abundantly shown in this story, as it has been in other novels written by this author, alone or in collaboration with Mr. Merwin. The working of a copper-mine, the founding of a trust, the change from the old-fashioned trust to the simple plan of one monster corporation, the deadly business fight for supremacy between two men who hate each other for personal reasons—these and similar things are capable of dramatic treatment, and Mr. Webster has a sharp-cut, direct style of narrative that grips the attention and holds it hard. The book is essentially a man's novel, but a thread of sentiment is not wanting, and the rivalry in business follows a rivalry in love.

Roll-Call of Westminster Abbey (The). By Mrs. A. Murray Smith (E. T. Bradley). The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×8½ in. 418 pages. $2.50.

There are four kinds of tourists: first, those who see hurriedly and pass on; secondly, those who always "take a guide"—that is, some person who is to "show them around," but rarely buy a guide-book; thirdly, those who do buy a guide-book and one only, generally Baedeker; fourthly, those who buy Baedeker and Hare too, and, if they read German, Meyer, and who are likely to have a number of other little books on hand—histories of art, or descriptions of particular towns. It is to this last-named class that Mrs. Murray Smith addresses her most recently published volume—she has already put forth those excellent books "Annals of Westminster Abbey" and "The Deanery Guide to Westminster." The present volume contains interesting bits of information on a picturesquely associated crowd of historical personages. Let us take those under "A," for instance: Joseph Addison, Major André, Dean Atterbury, the Earls of Albemarle and the Dukes of Argyll, and then what an array of "A" Queens!—Anne of Bohemia, the wife of Richard II., and Anne of Neville, the wife of Richard III., Anne of Cleves, "that ill-used Flemish lady," and Anne of Denmark, the wife of James I.; finally, *the* Queen Anne.

Romany Stone (The). By J. H. Yoxall, M.P. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 330 pages. $1.50.

A story of gypsy life and gypsy enchantment, the scene of which is laid in England. For a story of this character it is well told, having the sort of interest that awakes wonder and keeps it awake.

Rufe and Ruth. By Frank H. Sweet. The Pilgrim Press, Boston. 5×7½ in. 234 pages.

Secret of the Everglades (The). By Bessie Marchant. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7¼ in. 240 pages. $1.

A long-drawn-out and somewhat pathetic story of a mother and young family seeking and mourning for a father supposed to be lost in the Florida Everglades. There are treachery and deceit, and the mystery is not disclosed until the end.

Selections from the Thoughts of Pascal. Translated by Benjamin E. Smith. The Century Co., New York. 2¾×5 in. 147 pages. $1.

Sentimental Journey Through France and Italy (A). By Mr. Yorick (Laurence Sterne). (The Century Classics.) The Century Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 223 pages. $1.25, net. (Postage, 13c.)

Seven Roman Statesmen of the Later Republic: The Gracchi, Sulla, Crassus, Cato, Pompey, Cæsar. By Charles Oman, M.A. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 348 pages. $1.60.

A century of the internecine strife of factions and their "bosses" concerning the seat of authority over the populations conquered by Rome in three continents is here reviewed by a master of the subject, already widely known as a historian. Yet this is not precisely a history of the decline and fall of the old republic. It is a series of studies of the personal element dominating that tragic period, critical sketches of the men whose selfish ambitions and jealous rivalries, from the time of the Gracchi to the time of Cæsar, slowly worked out the subjection of a nominal democracy to an actual autocrat. Their names are familiar to school-boys, but their portraits are drawn with a freshness and attention to detail that attract the seasoned student. Professor Oman's critical sifting of traditional estimates makes the volume indispensable in schools that devote any attention to this portion of the world's history.

Short History of Music (A). By Alfredo Untersteiner. Translated by S. C. Very. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 4¾×7½ in. 349 pages. $1.20, net.

This conscientious narration of the development of music is almost purely "factual." Bach is treated in six pages, Tschaïkowski in one very brief paragraph. The usefulness of the book for reference is impaired by the inexcusable lack of an index. The bibliography appended to each chapter is a commendable feature. Poverty of diction makes the critical comments of the author seem undiscriminating.

Song of a Single Note (A). By Amelia E. Barr. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 330 pages. $1.50.

Love, the song of a single note, has martial accompaniments, for this is a story of New York during the British occupation. A graphic picture of social life in the metropolis at that time is given, with Mrs. Barr's usual attention to picturesque detail and historical accuracy. The book should appeal to a large class of readers acutely interested in Revolu-

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tionary times, customs, and manners, and to another large class who like a pretty love story for itself. One must confess surprise to discover Mrs. Barr permitting a lover to win by such a measure as Lord Medway employed; it looks like retrogression to belief in the old adage, "All's fair in love and war."

Sons of Glory (The). By Adolfo Padovan. Translated from the Italian by the Duchess Litta Visconti Arese. The Funk & Wagnalls Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 306 pages. $1.50.

In the fields of poetry, music, art, science, philosophy, exploration, prophecy, and war, the author chooses a typical son of genius, studies him, compares him with others in his own line, and draws deductions concerning the class to which he belongs. He then compares class with class, again draws inferences, and on final conclusions bases his answer to the question, "What is genius?" in which he takes exception to the definition of the Lombrosan school and diagnoses genius as "rich and exquisite nervous sensibility" rather than nervous degeneracy. "The man of genius," he says, "is a giant of the nervous system. His nervous system is like an immense harp of a thousand sonorous chords." This study of an ever-attractive subject is poetical and interesting.

Soul of the People (The). By H. Fielding Hall. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8¼ in. 314 pages. $3.

Religion is this Soul. Mr. Hall has studied it among the Burmese, whom he knows and loves. They are Buddhists. In their social principles and practices he sees the natural fruit of their religious belief. This connection he illustrates at length both in anecdote and story, sometimes pathetic enough. It is an interesting book, already in the fourth edition.

Spirit of the Ghetto (The). By Hutchins Hapgood. Illustrated by Jacob Epstein. The Funk & Wagnalls Co., New York. 5×8 in. 312 pages. $1.35, net.

A vivid description of things as they are in the Jewish quarter of New York. The author, a Gentile, lived in this quarter, he says in his preface, not from motives of philanthropy or sociological investigation, but because he felt the charm of the picturesque life there. This attitude on his part was naturally met by an uncommonly friendly and open attitude on the part of the people, and the author came to know them as investigators not in sympathy can not. His sympathy with them, however, has not led him to suppress or even minimize the sordid aspects of their lives; and the young Hebrew artist Epstein, who has illustrated the work, has been even franker in picturing unattractive conditions and types. The style of the narrative sometimes lacks in refinement, as do also the judgments rendered upon some of the poetry now being produced in the Jewish quarter; but these shortcomings do not lessen the illuminating quality of the book regarding the life described. Readers of Zangwill will be interested to learn that while the uptown Jews of New York dislike him for his lifelike portrayal of the mean sides of life in the Ghetto, the downtown Jews, who nurture no social aspirations, not only read Zangwill with unalloyed enthusiasm, but crowd the theaters to see his novels dramatized.

Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum. By Isabel Lovell. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 258 pages. $1.50, net.

Archæology has too often been regarded as a subject which interests very serious students, and possibly a few nice old gentlemen who, having retired from more active pursuits, seek something which may keep them pleasantly busy and not tax their strength overmuch. But those who are not scholars, who may have studied archœology from a traveler's standpoint only, know that Egypt, Assyria, Greece, and Rome become doubly interesting because of their stories in stone. In the present volume Rome's stories are clearly and entertainingly told.

Stories of California. By Ella M. Sexton. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 211 pages. $1.

This volume comprises some excellent contributions to history, as it certainly comprises some notable contributions to romance. The little book is one which will appeal, therefore, to readers old and young. Several of the stories explain in some degree the remarkable physical characteristics of California; but the writer's chief aim has evidently been to unfold to children and to their parents the life of bygone days.

Story of Athens (The). By Howard Crosby Butler, A.M. Illustrated. The Century Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 532 pages. $2.40, net. (Postage, 18c.)

In taking for his subject

> "Athens, the eye of Greece, mother of arts
> And eloquence,"

Mr. Butler is largely concerned with the arts and the men that have given to Athens her historic renown. These are the pearls threaded upon his narrative from the mythical to the modern age in the present century. The story of Athens, oft told in part, but here rounded out in continuity and completeness, acquires a new charm in this relation by one so finely appreciative of the memorials of its ancient life and glory. The illustrations are remarkably satisfactory.

Struggle for a Fortune (A). By Harry Castlemon. Illustrated by W. H. Fry. The Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, O. 5×7½ in. 298 pages. $1.

Sweetbrier and Thistledown. By James Newton Baskett. The W. A. Wilde Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 340 pages. $1.50.

Mr. James Newton Baskett is the first writer to describe minutely and with intimate acquaintance nature and people in middle and southern Missouri. It is clear that he knows and loves both landscape and men and women, and that he interprets them with affectionate fidelity and with a controlling desire to let them speak for themselves in all their simplicity and sometimes in all their uncouthness. His novel "At You-All's House" had the flavor of the soil—the sincerity, simplicity, and characteristic humor of a country and a people entirely different from the country and the people of New England, of the South, or of the Central West. He is an ardent lover of nature; and those who read stories to be carried swiftly on to the end by the flow of the narrative will object to the

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long pauses by the way. Others will be glad of the guidance of a man who knows his country so well. Mr. Baskett's latest story, "Sweetbrier and Thistledown," describes the experiences of a girl who is sent to live on a Missouri farm in the family of a Missouri farmer—a strongly drawn character, full of kindness, quaintness, humor, and sturdy independence. In the course of their walks and talks the farmer has a chance to show and explain to the child almost everything that goes on in the course of a year on a Missouri farm. The story is intensely local, and is evidently made up of a series of minute studies.

Taskmasters (The). By George Kibbe Turner. McClure, Phillips & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. $1.25.

There is sordid, vulgar, unscrupulous life in America, but all life in America is not sordid, vulgar, unscrupulous. This story is not a picture of American life; if American commercial and political life were so rotten as this book portrays it, we might well abandon all hope for our country, not to say for humanity. No one who knows manufacturing New England will recognize Ellington as a New England manufacturing town; no one who knows the New England people will recognize Mr. Thorndike as a New England manufacturer. The New Englander is not infrequently hard and unsympathetic, demanding the impossible of men of different temperaments and no advantages, and coldly indignant because he does not get it; he is sometimes so absorbed in business as to be forgetful of humanity; he is sometimes characterized by the exclusiveness of a feudal aristocrat without possessing that sense of obligation to his dependents which feudalism developed; in other words, he sometimes possesses in large measure the vices and in small measure the virtues of democracy; but he is not a melodramatic villain. If so villainous a villain as Mr. Thorndike could be found in New England, he would not coolly confess the story of his crime to his loved daughter. The apparent hardness of the New Englander is due to a character trained in an atmosphere of conscience; and if he has the hardness, he is quite certain to have conscience enough to recognize its existence in the members of his own family, and not cynically or stupidly disregard it.

Temple Bible (The): An Introduction to the Study of the Scriptures. Edited by the Lord Bishop of Ripon. **The Book of Joshua and the Book of Judges.** Edited by A. R. S. Kennedy, D.D. **The Later Pauline Epistles, Romans, Ephesians, Philippians, and Colossians.** Edited by the Lord Bishop of Durham. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 4×5¼ in. 60c., net, per volume.

The publication of these three volumes completes the series—twenty-five volumes in all. Summarizing points mentioned since its first appearance, the text is that of King James's Version in paragraphs; the Introductions and Notes are by competent scholars, and generally conservative; the table of Biblical Reference in English Literature given in each volume is a unique and valuable feature of the work. Of the volumes now in hand it is enough to say that the Introduction to the Scriptures, by Dr. Boyd Carpenter, is a model of felicitous treatment of a large subject with luminous brevity; and that the work of Dr. Kennedy exhibits Old Testament scholarship at its best. Dr. Moule, the editor of the Pauline Epistles, is favorably and widely known in this country chiefly by his devotional books.

Tragedy of Pelée (The): A Narrative of Personal Experience and Observation in Martinique. By George Kennan. Illustrated. The Outlook Co., New York. 5¼×8½ in. 257 pages. $1.50, net.

Mr. Kennan went to Martinique on the Government vessel Dixie as the special representative of The Outlook. This volume tells what he saw and learned there. His adventures were by no means devoid of danger, and, with the exception of Professor Heilprin, he was the first to see the crater of Pelée after the great explosion. The readers of The Outlook do not need to be informed as to Mr. Kennan's faithfulness and thoroughness as an observer, nor as to his vivid and pictorial narrative style. There are many illustrations, including some of the author's own photographs and several drawings by Mr. George Varian.

Treasury of Humorous Poetry (A). Edited by Frederic Lawrence Knowles. Illustrated. Dana Estes & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 407 pages. $1.20. (Postage, 13c.)

Selections from the witty, facetious, satirical, and sometimes mere rollicking verse of all lands may be found within this volume. It is truly a treasury of humorous rhyme, amid which will be found much true poetry from famous pens. Those who seek apt quotations, humorous titles or headlines, might find it valuable. The levies made on English, Irish, Scotch, and American humorists are especially large. Portraits of Field, Riley, Holmes, Lowell, and Harte adorn the opening page.

Tin Tan Tales: A Book for Children. By Gracie Kasson and E. Tschantré, Jr. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 9×11 in. 24 pages. $1.50.

Treatise on Title-Pages (A). By Theodore Low De Vinne, A.M. Illustrated. The Century Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 485 pages. $2, net.

This is the third volume in Mr. De Vinne's valuable series on the practice of typography. It was first published by the Grolier Club in a limited edition, now out of print, but the present edition has considerable additional matter and many new illustrations. The book is in three parts: the first consisting of historical material with illustrated chapters on the Colophon, Ornamented Titles, Early Displayed Titles, etc.; the second treats of the Modern Title-Page, the Selection of Type and Display of Words, Leading, Spacing, etc.; and the third part, which is critical, comments upon various modern outgrowths. Mr. De Vinne is the dean of master printers in America, and what he says in this book and elsewhere concerning the art is spoken with the authority of thorough knowledge, eminent practical achievement, and admirable good taste.

William Morris: Poet, Craftsman, Socialist. By Elizabeth Luther Cary. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 6½×10 in. 296 pages. $3.50, net.

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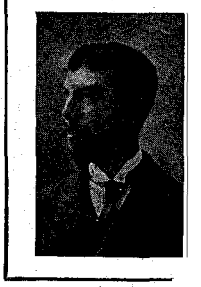

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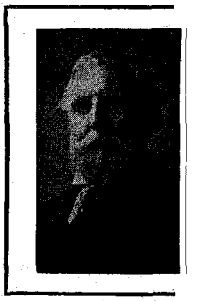

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